

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

AN INTERNATIONAL MAGAZINE

February

Awakening of the Alaskan

Feb 1 1906 The Kentucky Tobacco "War"

America's Interest in Lord Kelvin

The New Business Methods in Government

"Red Cross" for Our Industrial Army

The Campaign Against Vagrancy

George Meredith at Eighty

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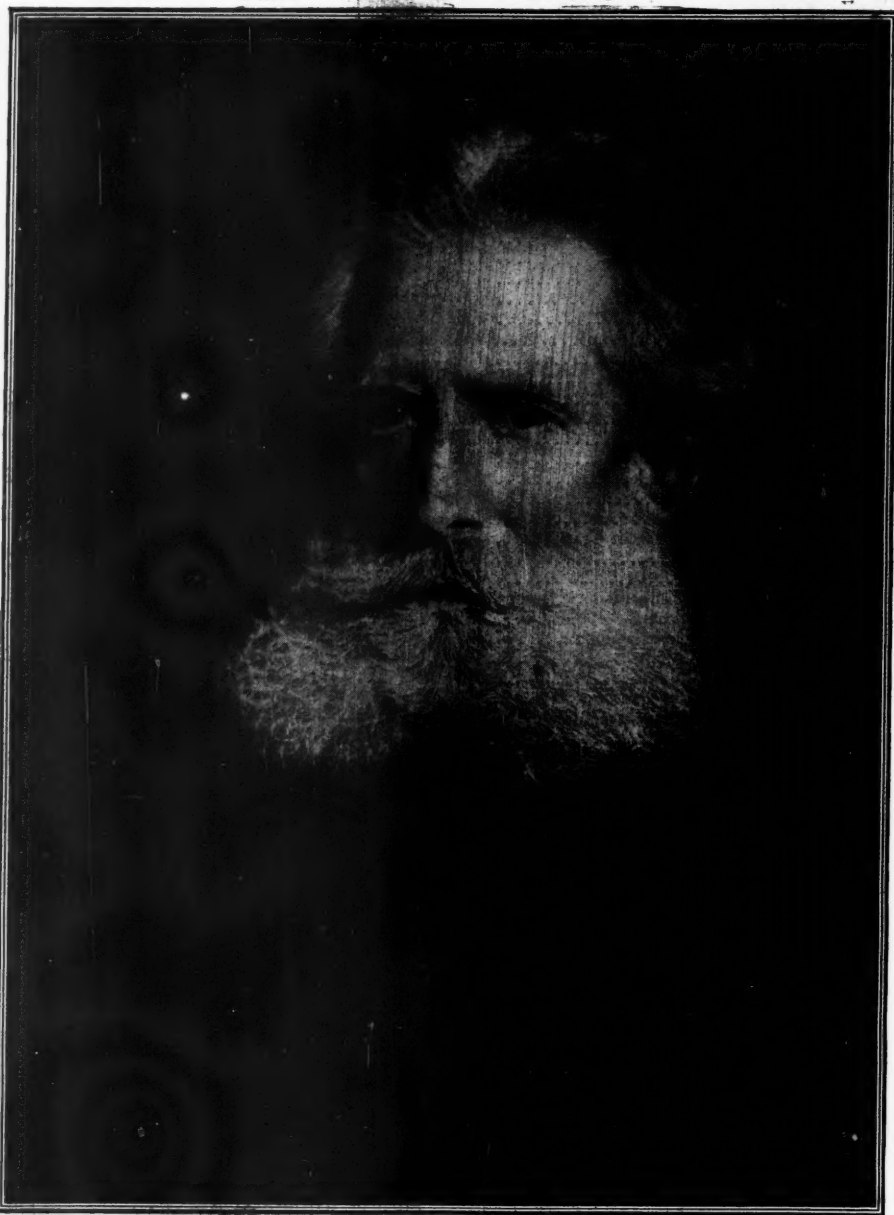
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EDMUND CLARENCE STEDMAN, THE BANKER-POET.

(A unique figure in American commerce and letters was removed by the death, on January 18, of Edmund Clarence Stedman, in his seventy-fifth year. Although a New Englander by birth and education, Mr. Stedman passed almost all of his life in New York City. Among his many single poems which have brought him fame, "The Diamond Wedding," "How Old John Brown Took Harper's Ferry," and "Pan in Wall Street" will be particularly remembered. His Victorian and American anthologies are too well and popularly known to need characterization here. Mr. Stedman did some noteworthy daily newspaper work during the Civil War, but at its close became interested in the financing of the first Pacific railroad. For more than thirty years he was a successful, respected member of the New York Stock Exchange.)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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No. 2

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*End
of the
Panic.*

The business conditions of the country have continued to hold first place as a topic of public discussion. Panics are usually short-lived; and the panic of November, 1907, was at an end by about the middle of January, 1908. Naturally, however, the panic produced a paralysis of industry; and paralysis is a disease from which recovery is only gradual and seldom rapid. A panic is due to psychological causes. The state of mind that produces it is one of extreme and all-prevailing fear. Speculative activities are also due to psychological causes, and the state of mind that attends buoyant speculation is one of great hope and confidence. Speculative conditions bring about a great number of unwarranted activities. They produce credulity. Almost every one is somewhat infected by the notion of large and quick gains, and the promoters of all kinds of ventures flourish mightily. Speculative conditions also cause men to apply themselves with great energy to legitimate enterprises, and the development of the country goes forward at a splendid rate. Thus the resources of productive capital are overtaxed and exhausted, the fabric of credit is unduly extended, and a vast number of people suddenly discover, simultaneously, that they cannot continue to borrow in unlimited sums. And then some of the enterprises which have depended solely for their success upon the continuance of speculative conditions are exposed as in a precarious plight, whereupon prudent men become a little anxious and begin to throw out hints of warning.

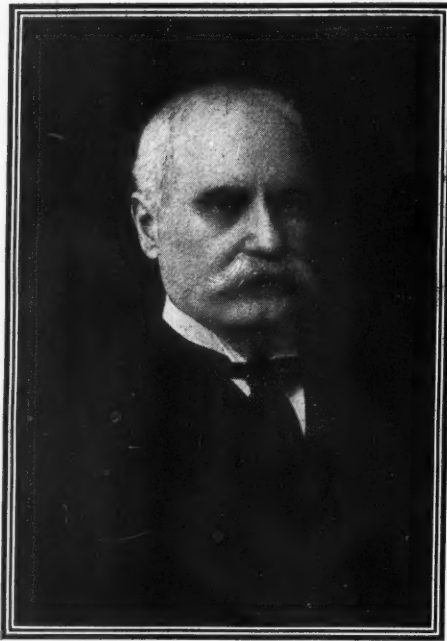
*How Panics
Come
and Go.*

The reaction finds a bank or trust company, here and there, that has been too freely financing the wrong sort of undertakings. Some of the insiders learn the truth and whisper to their friends. The withdrawal of deposits be-

gins, and the rumors of adversity spread. Then comes the fright that brings about the "run" that the soundest of banks must always dread and that few can withstand. Thus speculation, which means excessive confidence and activity, runs its course and brings about panic, which means excessive fear and inaction. The effect of panic, in the first instance, is to create antagonism between banks and their customers. The normal course of business requires confidence and co-operation between the whole business community and the banks. At the outset of a panic, however, the banks seek to hoard currency to protect themselves against a run, and individuals and business houses seek to recover and keep currency to guard themselves against the insecurity of the banks. This situation brought about the so-called money famine that swept across the United States in the last months of 1907. All sorts of expedients were resorted to; and at last the money



MR. CARNEGIE IS VERY OPTIMISTIC.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



SENATOR ALDRICH, OF RHODE ISLAND.

(Whose bill for emergency banknotes seems likely to become a law.)

famine is at an end.* Currency is circulating freely again, and the New York banks, after January 15, reported that instead of a shortage of cash they were receiving more than they could make use of. The trouble was not due to the lack of a sufficient quantity of the paper and metallic means of exchange, but simply to the fact that there was a temporary checking of the usual freedom of circulation. The consequence was that about 100 cities in the United States found themselves using clearing-house certificates issued by their associated local banks; and throughout the country a great variety of temporary expedients and devices were employed as a substitute for legal money. The banks of New York imported a great deal of gold from abroad, while the Government at Washington did everything in its power to increase the supply of money and to help to restore confidence. One step taken by the Government was to deposit its treasury surplus in the banks in so far as possible. Another was to sell a new issue of Panama Canal bonds with a view to using the proceeds to help the money market. Still another, and a more decisive and unusual expedient, was to an-

nounce the issue of a short-time loan under powers conferred upon the Executive at the outbreak of the Spanish War. The maximum amount of this loan was not issued, and subsequent events indicated that the step need not have been taken. But the effect of the announcement was very valuable at the moment, because it gave the country the feeling that in one way or another the Government was strong enough to support successfully the effort of the banks and the business community to tide over the emergency and get money into circulation again.

*The
Question of
Remedies.*

Now that the crisis is passed, and that the banks are paying depositors freely and are loaning their assets in a normal way to their commercial patrons, the question of remedies has no further application to the immediate exigency, but has reference rather to the prevention of future trouble. Several kinds of remedies are proposed, and these differ a good deal in principle. For many years past the bankers of the country have demanded a law which would give an automatic elasticity to the volume of currency. Many practical men are of opinion that a measure of this kind is all that we can secure in the near future. Their ideas do not contemplate any fundamental change in our present banking system. The present arrangement for issuing banknotes on the basis of Government bonds deposited as security would remain unchanged unless in some matters of detail. In addition to this they ask for a plan under which the



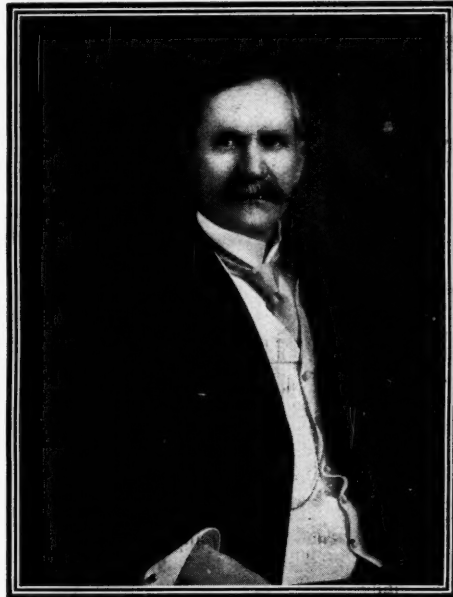
THE DELUGE.

From the World (New York).

banks could quickly issue temporary notes in times of emergency, under a heavy enough tax to compel their retirement as soon as the emergency should be at an end. There are others who believe that the great trouble lies in the independence and virtual isolation of thousands of banks, and that we need in this country a central bank of issue. There are still others who believe that the greatest need lies in the direction of measures that will protect the solvency of banks by increasing the security of depositors. They hold that if there were a Government guaranty of deposits the chief cause of currency panics would be forthwith removed. In times of panic, they remind us, depositors do not withdraw their money because they need it, but because they desire protection against ultimate loss. If deposits were guaranteed by the Government there would be no danger of ultimate loss, and the motive which gives severity to most bank runs would cease to exist.

*The
Aldrich
Bill.*

Of these three different lines of remedial action, the only one that has been thoroughly discussed in this country is that of a provision for elastic currency. A measure of this kind is likely to be enacted at Washington by the present Congress either this year or next year. A bill introduced by Senator Aldrich has been undergoing modification in the Finance Committee of the Senate. Chairman Fowler and his associates of the Banking Committee of the other house are also at work upon a currency measure. The Fowler proposals are more comprehensive and scientific. The Aldrich proposals, on the other hand, are along the line of analogies more familiar to the people of this country and therefore are more likely to be adopted. The Aldrich bill permits the issue of currency by the banks upon the deposit of State, county, municipal, and railroad bonds. The bill provides, of course, for the selection of safe bond issues as distinguished from the less desirable securities. A tax at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum would operate to retire the emergency notes when the business of the country no longer needed them. The principle of the bill is criticised, on the ground that it provides an artificial market for bonds. Banks throughout the country are not accustomed to carry considerable investments of this sort. Many leading bankers of the country do not like the plan of banknotes based upon a deposit of securities.



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SENATOR HANSBROUGH, OF NORTH DAKOTA.

(Who is the foremost champion in Congress in the plan of a central national bank of issue.)

*The
Fowler
Bill.*

The Fowler bill is a sweeping and comprehensive measure for the creation of a banknote currency secured by the guaranty of the Government. Under this plan the Government itself is secured by a fund to be contributed by the banks, equal to 5 per cent. of the volume of circulation. Mr. Fowler's measure would do away with the present banknote currency based upon the deposit of Government bonds, and would also retire the outstanding greenbacks. There is much else in this Fowler bill, which undertakes to provide a complete reform of the currency system of the country. The trouble is that the country does not seem willing to have its currency system reformed in a scientific way.

*The
Central Bank
Idea.*

Senator Hansbrough, of North Dakota, was prepared, when Congress assembled in December, with a bill providing for a great central bank of issue. He, too, had a system for a thoroughgoing reform of the national currency. But Mr. Hansbrough now admits that there is no possible chance at present to make headway with his project. He is willing to accept the Aldrich bill with certain



HON. CHARLES N. HASKELL.
(Governor of Oklahoma.)

modifications. If the Fowler bill had been much more simple and had merely proposed to supply an emergency currency resting upon the general business and assets of the banks and protected by a Government guaranty and the deposit of an insurance fund at Washington, it would have stood a better chance of consideration at the present session. It is announced that President Roosevelt and the finance officers of the Administration will favor the Aldrich bill in a general way and that Speaker Cannon regards it as the only practical measure for the present session.

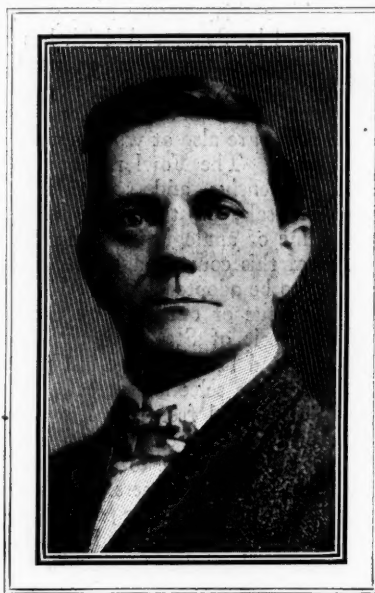
*Guaranteeing
Deposits in
Oklahoma.*

Mr. Bryan's support of the suggestion to guarantee the deposits in national banks has been widely advertised, but the plan is not meeting with much favor at Washington. It has, however, been adopted by the new State of Oklahoma, as respects the deposits in banks organized under the State laws. Depositors in national banks are also to be protected by

the State in case of their compliance with the provisions of the law. Governor Haskell signed the bill on December 17, and the new law becomes operative on February 15. A depositors' guaranty fund is to be created by a levy against each bank of 1 per cent. of its average deposits. The operation of the law is placed in the hands of a State banking board. A State bank commissioner and his assistants are to make an examination twice a year of the condition of each bank. It is worth while to note the fact that a section of this new law forbids any active managing officer of any State bank to borrow money, either directly or indirectly, from the institution with which he is connected. The law seems to have been carefully and ably drawn, and its working will be observed with much interest throughout the country.

*Kansas to
Follow Her
Neighbor.*

One of the effects of this action in Oklahoma was to produce an insistent demand for similar legislation in the adjoining State of Kansas. Governor Hoch and other State officials warmly favored the innovation, and the Legislature was called in special session, meeting on January 16. The general opinion prevailed that Kansas would not only undertake to guarantee bank deposits, but would legis-

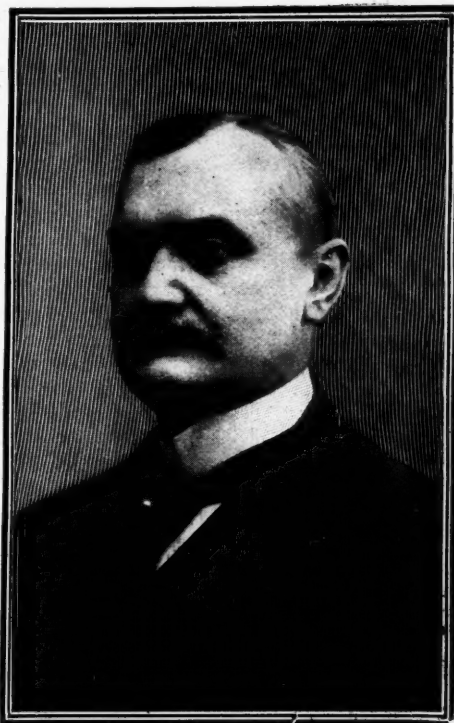


GOV. EDWARD W. HOCH, OF KANSAS.
(Who has called the Legislature in special session to guarantee bank deposits, pass a two-cent rate bill, and provide for primary elections.)

late so promptly that it could also give effect to its law in February, with Oklahoma. Conservative bankers are naturally afraid that the guarantee of deposits by the State will lead the more reckless or inexperienced managers of banks to exceed the bounds of prudence in their efforts to get deposits. It is quite possible that Texas and some other of the Southwestern States may follow the example of Oklahoma and Kansas in the near future. Abstractly, strong arguments can be presented on both sides of the question. Practical experience will show which side of the case is the better and stronger. Besides the bank-deposit question Governor Hoch has asked the Legislature to pass a 2-cent fare bill and to do several other things. Kansas evidently is not willing to be outdone in radical measures of any kind by neighboring States.

*The
Business
Outlook.*

The restoration of confidence in the banks, and the free circulation once more of the country's currency, have given a wholly different aspect to the economic conditions from that which was prevalent in November and December. The money stringency stopped the movement of wheat and corn and cotton from the farmers to the markets. It stopped the wheels of factories everywhere. It closed many mines, brought building operations to a standstill, and threw hundreds of thousands of men out of work. It crowded the steerages of east-bound steamers with scores of thousands of workmen who chose to return with their savings to their native lands until the demand for labor should call them back here again. But the country is fundamentally prosperous, and in most sections there is evident a gradual resumption of activity and a great deal of confidence as respects the future. Quite apart from the transient currency panic, there has set in a widespread process of what is called liquidation. Loans have been called in and credits are undergoing readjustment upon a hard-times basis. There will be a good many business failures yet to come; and for a year, perhaps two years, there will in many lines of business be a comparatively dull showing. It will be a period for the practice of thrift and the homely economic virtues, in order that resources, both private and public, may be used for the best possible results. There will be a very sharp reduction in luxurious expenditure and a corresponding increase in the amount of new capital that can be devoted to business undertakings.



Photograph by Davis & Sanford, N. Y.

MR. THOMAS F. RYAN.

(Whose recent reorganization of the Seaboard Air Line has resulted in a receivership for another so-called "Ryan" corporation.)

*Rail-
road
Finances.*

The most serious difficulty that looms up in the near future concerns the railroads. It is impossible to see where they are going to obtain money enough to go on with their necessary improvements. The era of combination-forming in railroads has been accompanied by reckless financiering and over-capitalization. Where the traffic demands of the country have increased 100 per cent. the railroad facilities have not increased more than 25 per cent. In some mysterious way the private fortunes of the men who have managed to get themselves at the head of great railroad enterprises have become enormous, while the railroad companies are not in a fortunate plight. When the investing public would no longer buy fresh bond issues, the railroads sold short-time notes at high rates of interest in order to provide themselves with equipment or to make necessary improvements. As those obligations begin to mature, the roads are in much perplexity as to the way to tide along. A difficulty of this kind has thrown

the Chicago Great Western system into a temporary receivership, and the Seaboard Air Line system has also gone into the hands of the courts. There were rumors last month that the Southern Railroad system might have to seek a receivership and undergo reorganization, although this was denied in well-informed quarters. Several other roads are undoubtedly shaky in their financial position, and if the present shrinkage in earnings should be long protracted they would not be able to meet their maturing obligations. It is not at all creditable to American railroad management that after a long period of unexampled prosperity the companies should disclose themselves as so near the bankruptcy line at the first approach of a business recession.

*Need for
Public
Oversight.*

If capitalization had been kept small from the beginning, and earnings had been properly applied to the maintenance and development of the lines, we should have seen no such piling up of obligations as now hampers almost every mile of railway in the United States. The situation calls imperatively for governmental regulation of issues of stocks and bonds. The new legislation that the President called for in his message is greatly to be desired from all standpoints. Railroads now especially need supervision for the protection of the holders of their stocks and bonds. The Interstate Commerce Commission makes a very favorable report upon the working of the amended rate law for the period of fifteen months during which it has been in operation. The point of view of the Administration and of the Interstate Commerce Commissioners is by no means hostile to railroad prosperity. Amendments to existing laws as asked for by the Administration would enhance the value of railroad investments. The railroads should be allowed, for example, to make reasonable agreements, particularly as regards the fixing and maintaining of rates. On the other hand, they should be prevented from speculative investment in the stocks of other companies, and should be held strictly to their duties as common carriers.

*The
Anthracite
Coal Roads.*

The report of the Interstate Commerce Commission deals at length with the subject of the relation of railroads to the traffic in coal and other commodities. The group of allied anthracite coal roads of Pennsylvania is facing a perplexing problem. Under the recent Hepburn

act, common carriers, after May 1, must not transport from one State to another any commodities in which they have a commercial interest. The anthracite roads are engaged in the business of mining, transporting, and selling coal, and their associated monopoly of the anthracite business is the chief factor



HON. WILLIAM P. HEPBURN, OF IOWA.

(Chairman of the Interstate Commerce Committee of the House, whose name is connected with the law that baffles the coal roads of Pennsylvania.)

in their prosperity. No one as yet has explained how the Hepburn act is to be obeyed or enforced. It is hoped on behalf of the railroads that the act may be found unconstitutional. If the roads had not gone into the coal business, but had acted strictly as common carriers, the consumers of coal would have received their supplies at much less than the present prices. By close combination the roads fix the total amount to be mined, apportion the quantities among themselves, and absolutely control wholesale and retail prices. The market values of the stocks and bonds of these roads rest upon the basis of artificial profits in the coal business, due to monopoly. So strongly entrenched, however, are the anthracite roads in this position that it would probably take something more than the new Hepburn act to dislodge them. Too sudden

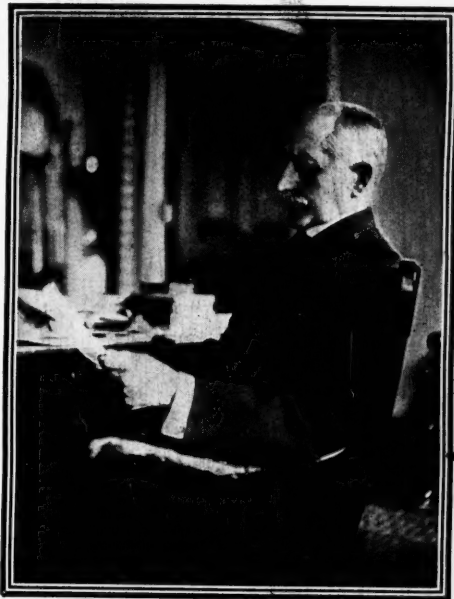
a restoration of normal conditions, indeed, would deal a heavy blow at many innocent investors in the inflated issues of stocks and bonds of railroads and coal companies. It is a question of these innocent investors as against the people who use coal in Philadelphia, New York, and the region of anthracite consumption.

*A Proposed
Tariff
Commission.* The tariff question has come before Congress in a new form. Senator Beveridge has introduced a bill for the establishment of a tariff commission as a bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor. Mr. Beveridge recognizes the fact that Congress will revise the tariff in its own way when it takes the matter up, and that it will not relegate the subject to the kind of commission that has usually been proposed. The commission suggested in this bill is of an entirely different sort. The Government already has in its employ a great many highly trained men capable of thorough statistical inquiry. The tariff revision that the country is beginning clearly to demand must be based upon economic and commercial facts. It must not be worked out by party politicians in conformity with traditional theories about free trade or protection. A commission of experts can supply Congress with statistical and informational data that ought now to be in process of collection as preliminary to the revision work that must be taken up within two years.

*Naval
Questions.* The movement of the fleet along the coast of Latin-America has been followed with friendly interest by the entire world. It has been at-



SO FAR SO GOOD.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



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ADMIRAL BROWNSON.

(Who recently resigned from the Bureau of Navigation.)

tended, moreover, by a great deal of discussion at home of naval questions and problems. The chief question has to do with the further policy of naval enlargement, and, as our readers well know, we are of opinion that the President's view on this issue can be safely adopted. All elements of American public opinion are of peaceful inclination, and there is no country against which we have any grudge or grievance. At the present stage in the world's history a strong and efficient American navy will be an instrument for the maintenance of world peace. There are technical details concerning the navy that the ordinary citizen does not expect to understand all about. For example, there has of late been drastic criticism of the architecture of our battleships. All that the average man knows is that our ships have sailed well and fought well when subjected to tests. If there have been mistakes they must of course be rectified. There has also been much criticism concerning the technical organization of the naval bureaus at Washington. If a better organization can be brought about the attempt will doubtless be made. A great controversy within naval circles has turned upon the question whether a hospital ship should be commanded by a medical officer or by a naval officer of the



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CAPTAIN JOHN E. PILLSBURY.

(Who succeeded Admiral Brownson as chief of the Bureau of Navigation.)

line. The President became convinced that for many reasons,—among them being the international rules of war regulating hospital ships,—it was best to have such a vessel considered as a hospital and put in command of its chief surgeon, navigation being in charge of the sailing master. Admiral Brownson, who was acting as chief of the Bureau of Navigation, took the other view and resigned from his post rather than execute the President's orders. The press of the country almost unanimously supported the President in his contention. There was, on the other hand, a good deal of fault found with the President for the severity of his strictures

upon Admiral Brownson's resignation. There is some feeling at Washington and throughout the country that the bureaus manned by naval officers at Washington have been unduly powerful and arbitrary, and that a different organization more directly under the control of the Secretary of the Navy would have better results.

*The Seeking
for
Delegates.*

The question of Presidential candidates has not declined in interest. On the contrary, it has become very concrete throughout the country, because in almost every State preliminary work has been going on for the holding of conventions and the choosing of delegates. The Taft movement, after the Secretary's return from his trip to the Philippines, began to show fresh and decided evidences of strength. The Secretary made several important speeches, one of them in Boston and another in New York, which defined frankly, seriously, and with marked ability his views upon many public questions. The most interesting centers of political activity have been in Ohio and New York. In Ohio the State Republican Committee decided to choose delegates by primary elections. The method decided upon was opposed by the friends of Mr. Foraker, with the consequence of bringing about a very complicated situation. The friends of Mr. Taft were confident that they would sweep the State.



SECRETARY TAFT'S FIRST PLANK.

From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).

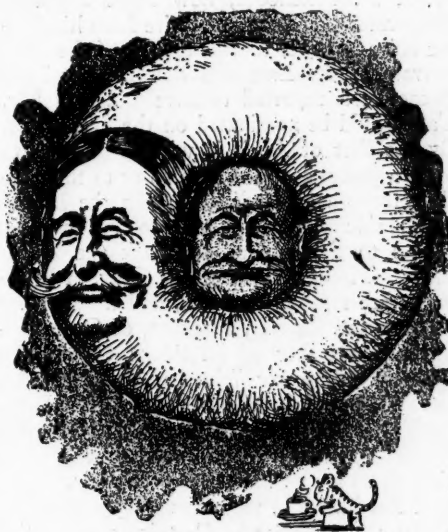


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SECRETARY TAFT MAKING HIS GREAT SPEECH ON THE RELATIONS OF LABOR AND CAPITAL IN COOPER UNION, NEW YORK, JANUARY 10.

(Mr. Charles Sprague Smith, who presided, is standing at the left of Secretary Taft.)

In New York the Hughes movement has been steadily growing, but it was not able last month to secure the adoption of Hughes resolutions in the county committees at the metropolitan end of the State. The members of the old Odell machine and the anti-Roosevelt elements in general were working for Hughes, not so much for any enthusiasm they feel toward the Governor as for their own reinstatement. The real Hughes sentiment in the State of New York, however, is a worthy and creditable one and does not owe much to the work of politicians. Mr. Hughes is making an extremely good Governor, and is a man who would rise to the height of any responsibilities that might be placed upon him. He has done nothing as yet to project himself into the limelight as a Presidential candidate, and whether or not the New York delegation carries his banner to Chicago he will have done nothing to regret. Meanwhile a definite clearing up of the Ohio situation will mean a great deal to Mr. Taft's candidacy. Mr. Arthur I. Vorys, of that State, is devoting all his attention to the Ohio situation, and it is understood that Mr.



TAFT VERSUS BRYAN.

"Twixt optimist and pessimist
The difference is droll;
The optimist sees the doughnut,
The pessimist the hole."

From the Ledger (Tacoma.)



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MR. ARTHUR I. VORYS, OF OHIO.

(Who is in charge of Mr. Taft's political interests in his own State.)

Frank H. Hitchcock, now First Assistant Postmaster-General, will retire from his present office in order to take charge of the Taft canvass in the East and South. President Roosevelt is reported to have said that Mr. Taft would be nominated on the first ballot. By the first of April it will be possible to form a pretty accurate opinion as to the relative strength of candidates. On the Democratic side there continue to be sporadic efforts to find a way to break the Bryan ranks. The friends of Judge Gray, of Delaware, are steadily at work, and a boom has been started for Mr. Harmon, of Ohio, formerly a member of President Cleveland's cabinet. Governor Johnson, of Minnesota, has his hopeful friends, and Gov. Hoke Smith, of Georgia, has been of late quite frequently mentioned. But up to the present time there are no indications that Mr. Bryan will not have the unanimous support of the Denver convention. Certain conservative Democrats in New York have been trying to organize an anti-Bryan movement, but the weakness of all such efforts lies in their failure to present a strong candidate of their own. Mr. Taft finds against him another

candidate in his own State; a brilliant and powerful Governor in the State of New York; a much-respected Pennsylvania candidate in the person of Senator Knox; a revived movement for Vice-President Fairbanks; vitality in the candidacy of Speaker Cannon, and serious intentions behind the efforts of Senator La Follette's supporters. In the Democratic field, however, there is no one really in sight except Mr. Bryan.

*New York's
Electric
Tunnels.*

The year 1908 will be notable among other things for the completion of the first tunnel connecting New York City and Brooklyn, and even more notable for the opening of the first tunnel connecting New York City with New Jersey. The first tunnel to Brooklyn goes by way of the Battery, which is the extreme southern tip of Manhattan Island. Two other tunnels to Brooklyn will be opened in the near future, and a third Brooklyn bridge is progressing rapidly. Meanwhile, great improvements are at the point of completion for vastly increasing the number of surface cars and elevated trains that can cross the bridges. Improved transit facilities will relieve the congestion of Manhattan Island, and add many hundreds of thousands to the already populous borough of Brooklyn. The completion of the McAdoo tunnels under the Hudson River is to be signalized by opening them to the public this month. The terminal on the New York side is surmounted by an enormous office building belonging to the company. A subway under Sixth Avenue is also in process of construction as a part of the same system. At present the only means of coming to New York from the West and South is by ferryboats from Jersey City and Hoboken.

*New
York's
Charter.*

The preliminary report of the Charter Revision Commission for New York City has attracted less attention, either within or without the metropolis, than was to have been expected, considering the magnitude of the interests involved and the importance of the commission's recommendations. The report is first of all a plea for a greater measure of municipal home rule. The State Legislature, meeting every winter at Albany, has always made a practice of saddling on the city government huge expenditures, concerning which the taxpayers, who foot the bills, have not one word to say. The commission holds that the city's financial affairs should be intrusted exclusively to local officials, elected at regular inter-



NEW YORK TO BROOKLYN: "Here's to our better acquaintance."

From the *Herald* (New York.)

vals. If the voters do not select trustworthy men for these offices they will have only themselves to blame. It is further recommended that the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, composed of the Mayor, Comptroller, president of the Board of Aldermen, and four members elected for the purpose, should be assisted by salaried experts. A new central department of street control is proposed, and there are other recommendations regarding the distribution of powers between city and borough officials.

*The
Ahearn
Case.*

The separate borough governments of the greater city have more practical importance than has commonly been supposed. The removal by Governor Hughes of Borough President John F. Ahearn of Manhattan Borough brought to public notice some of the powers intrusted to that official, whose area of administration has a population about equal to that of the whole city of Chicago. Formal charges of incompetence and inefficiency in the care of the streets had been preferred against President Ahearn in July last. Governor Hughes had conducted a full and careful investigation and had given Mr. Ahearn a hearing. On December 9 he ordered his removal. Despite the protest of Mayor McClellan, who took the ground that the removal was for the remainder of the term for

which Mr. Ahearn had been elected and that he could not be reinstated during that term, the New York Board of Aldermen proceeded to elect Mr. Ahearn himself to the office made vacant by the Governor's action. The effrontery of this transaction,—which would be startling anywhere but in Tammany-riden New York,—may at least serve to reveal the need of charter provisions to safeguard the city against its own elected officials who prove unworthy of the trust reposed in them.

*Unofficial
Civic
Work.*

After all the most encouraging thing in the New York municipal situation at present is the healthful activity of unofficial civic organizations and individuals. The Ahearn charges were presented before the Governor by the City Club, the material on which they were based having been laboriously gathered by the Bureau of Municipal Research, an organization which co-operated helpfully with the Commissioners of Accounts in their investigations of borough finances. This same bureau has made for the use of the Charter Revision Commission a complete analysis of New York's municipal government. Charts were prepared showing the organization of each department as it actually exists,—not on paper merely, but in practice. The valuable aid rendered by the bureau to various city

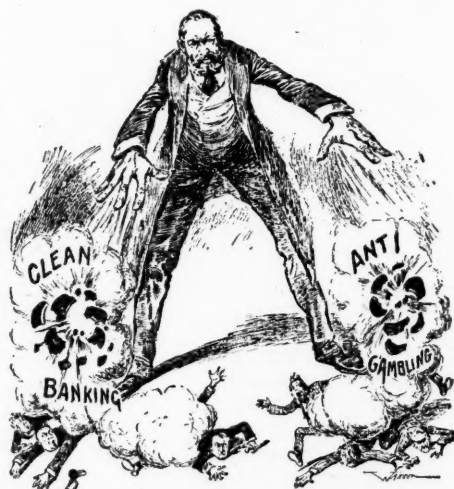
departments in suggesting more effective statistical methods cannot fail to bear fruit in greater administrative efficiency and economy. Best of all, the very fact that such an organization is known to be actually at work will act as a powerful moral deterrent with Tammany place-holders of the Ahearn type. In this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS (page 195) we present an article by Secretary Allen defining the scope of the New York bureau and outlining by suggestion and illustration the possibilities of similar organizations in other cities. The bureau's work is along similar lines to those so successfully followed by the Keep Commission in the improvement of the federal service, which is described by Mr. Forbes-Lindsay in the article immediately preceding Mr. Allen's.

Governor Hughes and the Race Tracks. While Governor Hughes, of New York, is being talked about all over the country as a possible Presidential candidate, there is nothing in the conduct of his office to suggest any thought on his part of aspiring to any office beyond the Governorship of the Empire State. His annual message to the Legislature declared anew for the enactment of certain measures, notably ballot and primary reform, which had failed last year to win the favor of the politicians, and urged reforms in State policy which are likely to encounter the opposition of many powerful interests. The reform upon which Governor Hughes lays greatest stress is the abolition of race-track gambling, which has heretofore been tolerated in the State, notwithstanding the prohibition of betting in poolrooms. The county fairs have participated in the profits from this exemption and they have common interests with the out-and-out gamblers in securing its continuance. Nevertheless, the Governor's argument for a consistent and indiscriminating enforcement of the State's constitutional provision against gambling is based on the highest ethical considerations, and this fact must be recognized at Albany. The business community is interested in the Governor's recommendations that the trust companies be brought under the restrictions applied to other banking institutions and that the powers of the State Superintendent of Banks be increased.

Coal-Mine Disasters.

Nearly 800 deaths from coal-mine explosions in this country during the single month of December last gave a startling and unexpected emphasis to the recommendation in President Roose-

velt's message for the creation of a national bureau of mines and to the preliminary report of the United States Geological Survey on the causes and prevention of such accidents. The greatest of these disasters, that at Monongah, W. Va., has been graphically described by Mr. Paul Kellogg in a magazine article which is reviewed in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," on page 225 of this number. These explosions, whether of fire-damp or coal-dust, or both,



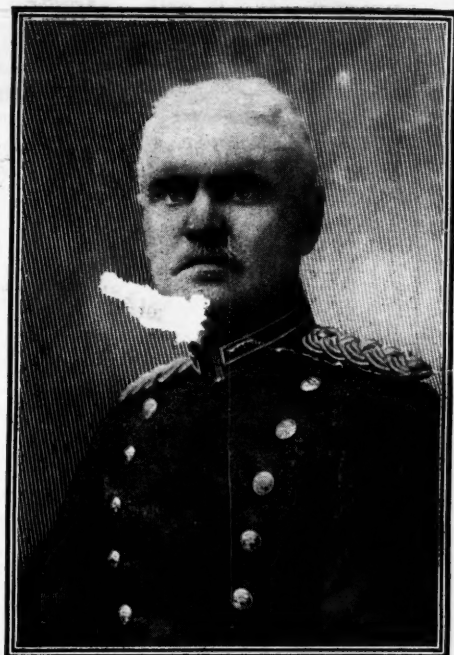
GOVERNOR HUGHES DEVELOPS AMBIDEXTERITY.
From the *Evening Telegram* (New York).

were formerly of frequent occurrence in European coal mines, but protective legislation in Belgium, Great Britain, Prussia, and France has resulted in a marked decrease in the number of deaths per 1000 miners, while in the United States the number of killed for each 1000 employed has increased from 2.67 in 1895 to 3.40 in 1906. In the report of the Geological Survey it is stated that in no country are the natural conditions so favorable for the safe extraction of coal as in the United States. It is also shown that in those countries where the dangers of mining have been greatly minimized during the past few years the governments have been active in maintaining testing bureaus for the study of explosives, as well as in securing the strict enforcement of restrictive measures. There is encouragement for Americans in the fact that no European country has the services of abler experts on the subject of explosives than those who are now conducting investigations for our own Government, with a view to lessen-

ing the perils to which our miners are exposed. The work of Dr. Charles E. Munroe and Mr. Clarence Hall points to the establishment of a government bureau on the lines suggested by President Roosevelt. Meanwhile, the intelligent co-operation of mine owners like President Jones, of the Pittsburg-Buffalo Coal Company, who is doing much to arouse both operators and miners to the dangers of disastrous explosions, will surely bring about improved conditions. The possibilities of organized "first-aid-to-the-injured" work among miners are illustrated in an article by Mr. Arthur Reeve on page 201 of this REVIEW.

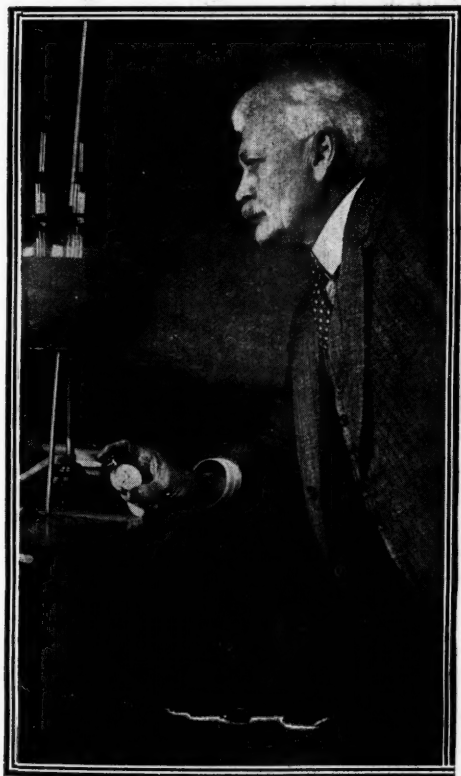
*Progress
at
Panama.*

Col. George W. Goethals, chief engineer and chairman of the Panama Canal Commission, stated last month to the Senate Committee on Inter-oceanic Canals that there were no insurmountable obstacles in the way of constructing the canal from the engineering view-



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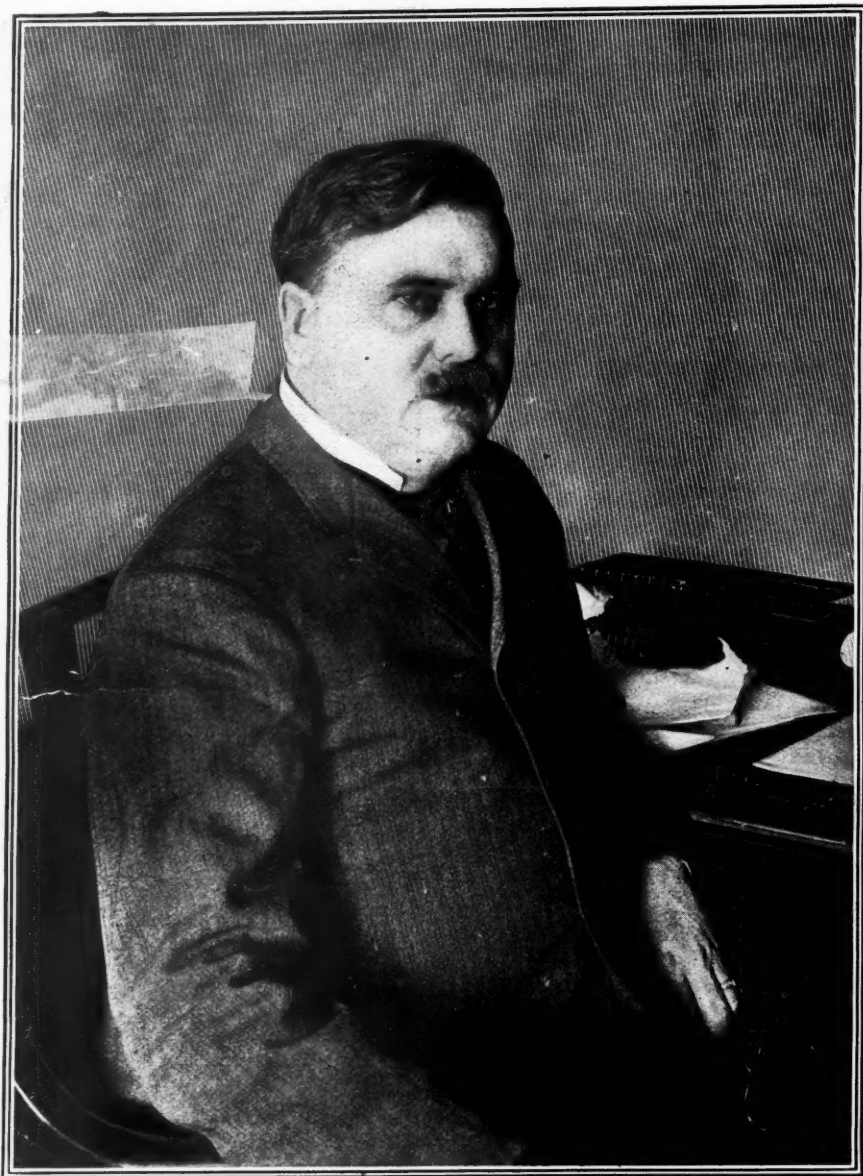
COL. GEORGE W. GOETHALS, CHAIRMAN OF THE PANAMA COMMISSION.



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PROF. CHARLES E. MUNROE TESTING DYNAMITE IN HIS INVESTIGATION OF MINE EXPLOSIONS.

point, and that it would certainly be completed by July 1, 1914. Colonel Goethals further stated that the cost would not exceed \$250,000,000. It will be remembered that the consulting board made an estimate far below this figure, but as Colonel Goethals pointed out to the Senate committee, that estimate did not allow for the cost of sanitation or for the government of the Canal Zone. Sanitation alone is costing our Government \$2,000,000 a year,—a charge that will continue until the work is completed. It has been found that the consulting board made too low an estimate on the cost of the locks and on the amount of excavation required. The Canal Commission made a recommendation, which was indorsed by Secretary Taft and finally approved by President Roosevelt, that the width of the canal locks be increased from 100 to 110 feet in order to meet requirements of the navy. Excavation in the Culebra Cut is now going forward at the rate of 1,000,000 cubic yards a month. In the last two months of 1907 all records were broken for excavation. Secretary Taft has expressed the opinion that the canal laborer is about 80 per cent. better paid than the laborer in like occupation in the United States.



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HON. CHARLES E. MAGOON, AMERICAN PROVISIONAL GOVERNOR OF CUBA.

(Who has just submitted a report indicating solid progress made in political and economic affairs in the Island during the year 1907.)

*Cuba to Be Her
Own Mistress
Next February.*

Within a few months an entire decade will have passed since the armed forces of the United States first landed in Cuba to express the will of the American Government and the American people with regard to the future relations of this tropical island to our own country and people. During that time we have twice withdrawn our influence and control. For virtually all the ten years' period, however, it has been the American people, seeking through their Government at Washington, to whom the rest of

the world, as well as the Cubans themselves, have looked as responsible for the actual security of life and property and the future prosperity, political and economic, of the island. President Roosevelt has just announced, in a letter replying to Secretary of War Taft's communication transmitting the report of Provisional Governor Magoon for 1907, that, "by or before February 1, 1909, we shall have turned over the island to the President and Congress to be elected next December by the people of Cuba." After that date the fate of Cuba will be in her own hands. Governor Magoon's report sets forth the generally prosperous condition of the island, and recounts the history of "intervention" with particular reference to the developments of the past year. During this decade that has passed since 1898 what have been the real fruits of American influence and direction in Cuba? A rapid summary of some of the more important of these will demonstrate the sincerity, disinterestedness, and efficiency of American "intervention."

*Sanitation and
Good Roads
in Cuba.*

Cuba is moving forward politically, economically, and industrially. There is no doubt of that. Under American direction and the stimulus of American assistance the work of improvement has progressed solidly. The idea of a \$5,000,000 wagon road, conceived by General Wood, has been already applied, and the great road is steadily progressing toward completion. This thoroughfare will open up a great artery of wagon communication by macadamized road, good in any weather, from one end of the island to the other. While from a military point of view this is a most highly important work, assuring the Havana government a military base of operations within forty miles of any point of the island and always accessible by wagon train, its chief value will be to open up access to market for many thousands of square miles of fertile land at present of no agricultural value, because their products cannot be profitably carried to market. Of prime importance has been the nationalization of sanitation in Cuba. This has already resulted in actually stamping out the yellow-fever pest and in greatly reducing all the other "mosquito diseases," a condition once before achieved during American intervention, but allowed to lapse. Making sanitation a national matter has also provided the machinery, funds, and supervision necessary to render this improved condition permanent. Hereafter the health

of the Cuban people will be a matter of constant care on the part of the central government of the island.

*Revising the
Electoral
Law.*

A very important result of our stay in Cuba has been the revision of the electoral law. In Cuba the electoral problem is a very grave one. Illiteracy and ignorance are very high, and the danger of a corrupt or vicious electorate correspondingly great. The educated Cuban is the equal of any enlightened individual on earth, but, unfortunately, he is in the small majority. Furthermore, of the educated classes of the island many persons are foreigners, either Spaniards who have not yet renounced their allegiance to Spain, or foreigners interested in the conduct of large business enterprises owned and controlled by foreign capital. It is a great problem to determine what function these people shall exercise in the government of Cuba. It is even a more serious one just how to limit the franchise to those really capable of understanding the responsibility of an elector. The poorer classes are just emerging from the conditions of the Middle Ages. Without books or newspapers in their homes, many of them unable to read at all, it is not difficult to see how large a proportion of this class is incapable of fulfilling or even understanding the duties and responsibilities that go with the ballot. These same people, however, fought for their freedom, enduring untold hardships, in years of struggle with Spain, and they must be reckoned with in any electoral law that may be adopted. A mixed commission, made up of Cubans and Americans, has been studying this problem for some time and has at last produced what is believed to be an acceptable solution of it. Some future changes may be necessary, but this plan will no doubt offer the best system that can at present be devised, and one which is a vast improvement on the former system.

*Safeguarding
Personal
Rights.*

During her entire history Cuba has suffered from the cruel exactions of an unjust criminal code, in most respects a survival of the most despotic of monarchical systems and utterly unsuited to republican forms of government. To counterfeit the great seal of Spain is still treason in Cuba, and the old laws restricting the rights of person are still so illiberal that a man may be adjudged guilty of a grave crime if he kills another in the defense of his house, family, or person. The present Cuban

law,—or the present-day Cuban interpretation of it,—was probably necessary in Spanish times to protect the "peninsular" against the "insular." The common-law idea of self-defense, of personal rights, however, is more in keeping with our own ideals and with our own system, to which Cuba must necessarily approximate more and more as time goes on. Under American influence the Cuban criminal code is in process of revision, and it also, as well as the electoral system, will soon be brought into harmony with American democratic ideas. This code revision, both in its immediate effects and in its educational value, may be classed as one of the greatest works being effected by the present provisional government in Cuba.

*Drainage
and
Reclamation.*

Governor Magoon and his American and Cuban advisers have begun the study of a highly important work of drainage and reclamation, comparable with the reclamation of the arid lands in our own West, or with the drainage of the Pontine marshes in Italy. This enterprise is still in the stage of engineering study. The engineer who is studying it, however, is General Mario Menocal, an able engineer, and one of the most eminent and trusted of Cuba's public men. The administration moreover has allotted ample funds for the purpose. The direct object is to prevent the periodical inundation of a large area of potentially fertile land lying partly in Matanzas and partly

in Santa Clara province. Many thousands of acres of good land can be thus reclaimed and made highly productive, and the health of two entire provinces very greatly improved as a result of this work. Other reclamation work is being done at different points on the island, and a good deal of money spent in relieving flood-sufferers of the inundated section in Matanzas province.

*Noteworthy
Municipal
Improvements.*

Considerable noteworthy work of municipal health improvement has been accomplished as a result of the appropriation of a fund of \$80,000 made some years ago by the Palma government, and originally intended to relieve these Matanzas flood-sufferers. When the American provisional government came into control Governor Lecuona, who had charge of the money, asked that a United States army officer be detailed to inspect the accounts, make recommendations for further allotments of this money, and supervise the execution of such works as might be authorized. As a direct result of this there has been inaugurated, in various cities of Matanzas province, many highly important municipal improvements. Streets have been macadamized, drainage provided, water systems installed, whole cities cleaned, and the health conditions of some ten or twelve towns very greatly improved. From time to time, as the reports indicated further allotments of money, it was given, and necessary improvements authorized. Recently the results of this work have been inspected, and an allotment of \$3,000,000 set aside for similar works in all the larger towns in the island. The small work of the past year in one province has not only served to improve the conditions of life in the towns of that province, but the attention of the general government has been so drawn to the problems involved that work is now to be undertaken on a large scale, which will speedily result in extension of these benefits all over Cuba.

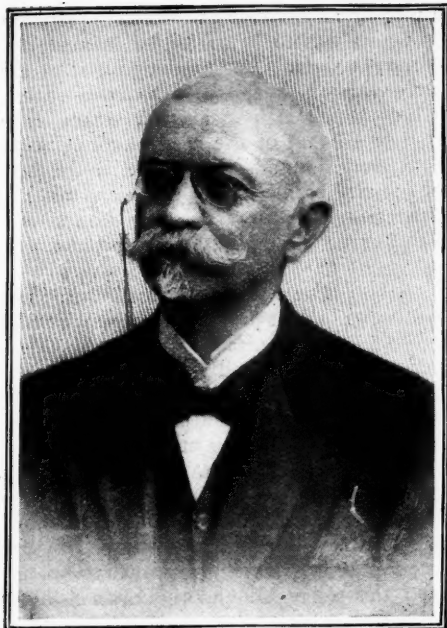


THE UNITED STATES OF CENTRAL AMERICA,—A GERMAN VIEW.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT: "Yes, yes, in union there is strength."

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

*The Agreement
in
Central America* The recently concluded agreement between the Central American states upon the treaties of friendship and intercourse, which, it is generally believed, will prevent future revolutions and dictatorships in those countries, has been commented upon very favorably by the press of the civilized world,—not, however, without some side remarks in the continental European press upon the alleged interested motives of our own Government and people in assisting at the conference. The German



DR. AFFONSO PENNA, PRESIDENT OF BRAZIL.
(Who in the name of his government has extended a warm welcome to the American fleet.)

cartoon reproduced here illustrates this feeling in Europe. Noteworthy items of news in the dispatches from Central America and the Caribbean countries during the past few weeks have been the floating of the new \$5,000,000 loan in England by the Salvadorean Government, the virtual settlement of the serious cigarmakers' strike in Cuba, and the reported revolutionary outbreak against the Haitian Government by a force under Gen. Jean Juneau.

The Fleet in South American Waters. The American naval force, under command of Rear-Admiral Evans, which sailed from Hampton Roads on December 16, completed the first stage of its long journey on schedule time, with safety and credit to our Government and our sailor-men. After halting at Trinidad on December 24, the fleet proceeded to Rio de Janeiro, arriving at the Brazilian capital on January 12. Unusual honors were paid to our ships and their officers by the Brazilian Government and the Brazilian people, and the day of their arrival was made an occasion of national festivity. President Penna took the occasion to gracefully announce a reduction of import duties on cer-

tain American products, in accordance with the Brazilian tariff law passed in June, 1906. Soon after this issue of *THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS* reaches its readers our fleet will be sailing northward on the west coast of South America, receiving and transmitting expressions of good will at the ports of Chile, Peru, Ecuador, and Colombia. It has been particularly gratifying to Americans to receive the evidence of friendly feeling on the part of the great sister Republic of Brazil, a friendly feeling which is heartily reciprocated. The warships of America on this cruise, to quote the words of President Roosevelt in his reply to the Brazilian President's friendly greeting, "exist for no other purpose than to protect peace against possible aggression, justice against possible oppression. As between the United States and Brazil these ships are not men-of-war, but messengers of friendship and good will."

*Foolish
War Talk
Subsiding.*

To Americans who are unused to the delicate play of rumor, suspicion, and suggestion that characterize the diplomacy of the Old World, it has been surprising to read the reports in European journals of standing and influence concerning the possibility of war between these United States and Japan. Even the most sensational articles in our own yellow press have not begun to compare with the startling announcements appearing in the journals of the Continent,—of France, of Germany, and of Russia particularly,—not merely speculating upon the possibility, or even probability, of a war, but assuming its certainty and arguing as to its outcome. The gratifying change in the tenor of these articles, particularly in the French press during early January, while Rear-Admiral Evans' fleet was receiving the friendly greetings of the Brazilian capital, was largely due to the personal influence of the French Ambassador, M. Jusserand, who vigorously and emphatically informed the Paris Foreign Office that such comments were creating false impressions in the United States. A milder tone has been noticeable in the Japanese press also, and our own daily newspapers have apparently come to a realizing sense of the foolishness and danger of publishing such articles as constantly appeared in their columns before the sailing of our fleet. The possibility that the ships may even visit Japanese ports and return by way of Suez is a perfectly natural one and should not be indicative of anything but friendliness to all the world.



BARON SHIBUSAWA, THE "J. PIERPONT MORGAN OF JAPAN."

(One of the influential financiers of the empire, who is leading the opposition to the financial policies of the Saionji Ministry.)

Crisis in the Japanese Ministry The problems confronting Japan in these first years of her actual entrance into the family of the great powers are as much industrial and commercial as those of all the western nations. With the opening of the Diet (on December 28 last) the Tokio government faced a campaign of difficult and delicate character to carry through its general economic and financial policies, and present some sort of justification to the country for its attitude on the emigration and Manchurian questions. The drain put upon the limited resources of the Island Empire by the war with Russia, and the subsequent employment of capital on a vast scale for the development of Japanese schemes of commercial expansion on the Asiatic mainland and in her Pacific merchant marine, have taxed heavily the productive resources of the country. It was the presentation of the budget synopsis (on January 16) for the current and the next year that forced the resignation of two members of the cabinet and revealed the intensity of political feeling in the empire on the question of industrial and financial expansion. According to the budget, all available annual receipts for the next two years will fall below the imperative expenditures by 40,000,000 yen (approximately \$20,000,000). The deficiency, it was proposed by the Minister of Finance, should

be met by an increase in taxation, provision for which was to be submitted in a supplementary budget. The estimated cost of the war with Russia,—\$940,000,000,—about half of which is held abroad, makes up a large proportion of the entire national debt at present. In addition, there is the economic and commercial ambition of the Japanese people in developing Korea and Manchuria and administering Formosa.

An Unsatisfactory Budget. The reception accorded to these budget proposals forced the resignation of Yoshiro Sakatani, Minister of Finance, and Isaburo Yamagata, Minister of Communications. Marquis Saionji, the Prime Minister, also tendered his resignation to the Emperor, who, however, refused to accept it. The portfolios of the other ministers were turned over provisionally to the Ministers of Home Affairs and Justice. The audience granted by the Emperor to ex-Premier Katsura immediately upon the resignation of the cabinet ministers is indicative of the trend of popular and governmental opinion in favor of a more moderate financial policy. Count Katsura, who was Premier during the war with Russia, has never been in favor of the large and ambitious economic projects of the present ministry. Many of the most eminent financiers and leading merchants of the country, including Viscount Shibusawa, have pointed out to the present ministry the dangerous magnitude of some of its financial enterprises, and it would appear that the solid strength of the Japanese masses is with them in their contention, particularly since these projects involve increased taxation and heavy expenditures for the army and navy. The per capita taxation in Japan (\$31.50) is already very high for the productive capacity of the Japanese people. Some of the friends of the government are apparently determined to force the party in power to appeal to the country. All well-informed students of Japanese politics agree that the present situation is due entirely to the financial problem. The immigration question is entirely apart. All the political groups in the empire believe that the question as it now exists with the United States and Canada can and will be settled amicably. There can be no doubt of the honest intention of the Tokio government to limit Japanese emigration to American and Canadian ports. The path of expansion for the empire lies eastward to Asia, not westward to America.

*Railroad
Progress
in China.*

Although administrative and political reform throughout China proceeds very slowly and with many interruptions, the consciousness of the Chinese commercial classes as to their economic rights and privileges is already full grown. This was made evident by the terms of the railway concession granted last month to an English and German company for the construction of a line, 700 miles long, from Tien Tsin to Ching Kiang. A line already runs from the latter point to Shanghai. By the terms of the agreement the loan advanced by the British and German capitalists is to be secured by imperial promise to pay, with a lien on the revenues of the provinces through which the line passes. The railroad itself is to be absolutely and forever free from any foreign influence or claim. Chinese administration is to have full control and operation of the service, examination of the books of the company being the only concession made to the creditors. There are now nearly 4000 miles of railway in operation in the Chinese Empire and more than 1600 miles under construction. It would seem that the deep-seated Chinese prejudice against the railway is in fair way to be removed. When this shall have happened and the important cities of the great Middle Kingdom shall be connected by railway lines the already existing system in Siberia will bring Chinese commercial products direct to Europe in scarcely a tenth of the time it formerly took. We recommend to our readers the articles on Chinese educational and legal reform which appear in this issue of the REVIEW (pages 213-218).

*The Chinese
and the
Foreigner.*

The progress of Japan's commercial absorption of Manchuria serves, as time goes by, to deepen the already deep-seated suspicion and animosity of the Chinese, who are bitter against the Japanese Government for the degree of Japanese ascendancy they perceive and for the further encroachments they suspect upon not only their sovereignty in the northern provinces, but their commercial prosperity in the heart of the empire itself. This anti-Japanese feeling in China is coming to be regarded as one of the most serious significant political signs of the times. Meanwhile, it is interesting to note that last month the Senate at Washington passed the joint resolution introduced by Senator Lodge embodying President Roosevelt's suggestion providing for the remission of more than half of the

Chinese debt to the United States growing out of the Boxer uprising. The Chinese bond, now fixed at \$24,000,000, is to be reduced to \$11,000,000. It is also of significance and more than passing interest to note that, at a recent government examination at Peking to test the ability of forty-two students who had been sent abroad for education, out of the only seven securing the doctor's degree five had been educated in America.

*Paul Milyukov,
a Constructive
Statesman.*

For Americans by far the most interesting development in the Russian situation during the past month was the visit to New York and Washington of Prof. Paul Milyukov, who, it will be remembered, was the leader of the Constitutional Democrats in the first and third Dumas. Professor Milyukov came to this country for the express purpose of addressing a meeting of the Civic Forum of New York. He afterward took a short trip to Washington, where he was informally received by prominent men of the Administration. He did not meet President Roosevelt, owing to the protest of the Russian Ambassador, Baron Rosen. Professor Milyukov is eminent as one of the few constructive Russian statesmen of the present period. His achievements as leader of the moderate group in the first and third Dumas, his broadminded, statesmanlike editing (with the famous Dr. Hessen) of the Liberal newspaper, the *Retch*, as well as the scholarly charm of his personality, and his excellent command of the spoken word in English, made his address (in New York on January 14) of peculiar interest and instructive value to all Americans who are



PERPETUAL MOTION.

The Americans kick the Japanese out of California, and the Japanese retaliate by kicking the Chinese out of Manchuria.

From *Shinkoron* (Tokio).



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PROF. PAUL MILYUKOV.

(The eminent Russian statesman and member of the Duma, who has been visiting the United States.)

interested in the progress of the modernization of Russia. The professor's address was a review of the entire history of the Russian revolutionary movement during the past twenty-six months, the period following the issue of the famous manifesto of October, 1905. The present situation, not only in the Duma, but in the country at large, he de-

scribed as one of "unstable equilibrium." On the whole, he was pessimistic as to the immediate future of his fatherland. The campaign for constitutional government in Russia, he declared, has resolved itself into a battle between classes, the end of which is not in sight. At present, in his opinion, "the court, and the nobility in particular, have become the leading forces in an openly avowed movement which is setting in for the restoration of autocracy."

*The Genesis
of the Russian
Revolution*

The radical success, which was put down with the bloody armed insurrection in Moscow more than a year ago, and the agrarian insurrection that followed, were the first stages in the revolution, Professor Milyukov asserts; the triumph of reaction is the third. The attitudes of the different political parties since the establishment of the first Duma he set forth in these words:

The revolutionary movement aimed at a commonwealth, while the reactionaries wanted to re-establish autocracy. The Constitutional Democratic party decided to fight for a parliamentary rule under a constitutional monarch. The revolutionists wished to have a charter worked out by a constitutional convention and sanctioned by a victorious revolution. The reactionaries did not want any charter at all, or at the worst a consultative representation granted by the Czar. Our party proposed a charter worked out by the first representative assembly, subject to the approval of the Czar.

*The Future
of Russia
at Stake.*

The Russian leader declared that his government has failed to keep its promises and has inaugurated and carried on a merciless warfare of repression. "The government did not grant any liberties," said he.

Only those liberties were and are permitted which the government was and is powerless to forbid; and such liberties are often used without any legal restraint, while a regular and law abiding practice of civil liberties is nearly always refused legal permission. Thus, under the new régime of national representation the executive power tried to remain what it had always been before, and it never thought of changing its former methods of administration. And as long as the present misrule lasts it is almost impossible for the legislative power to do its proper work.

The entire social condition of the future Russia is now at stake, he continued. "What are the forces that try to hold it in check?" he asked, and here is his answer:

The alliance of the two decaying political powers [the court and the nobility] for their own self-defence cannot obstruct the royal historical road the nation is following. The child-

ish explanation of the movement, as initiated and fostered by a foreign or anti-Russian intrigue, cannot do away with its deeper causes. And the foolish idea that the peasants of our communes can be changed at once into private proprietors can only cause new ferment in our villages, honeycombed with poverty and famine as they are. In short, wherever we turn or look we only meet with new trouble to come, nowhere with any hope for social conciliation or peace.

The party of which Professor Milyukov is the leader stands for ideas more nearly those of Americans as to popular government than any other in the Russian Empire. Should peaceful means fail, he believes that a bloody revolution is probable within two years. If full constitutionalism should be actually achieved in his time, he will undoubtedly come into his own as one of the most trusted leaders of the new era.

*The Finances
of
Prussia.*

The German Imperial Chancellor, Count von Bülow, is also Minister-President of the Prussian Diet,—that is, Prime Minister of the kingdom. In this latter capacity he has lately been confronted by problems of even greater difficulty than those which face him as Chancellor of the empire. Not only is Prussia in need of funds to carry on the administration of her government; she has also before her a serious political problem growing out of the long-delayed, sadly needed reform in her franchise laws. In the discussion of the royal budget (on January 14) Baron von Rheinbaben, the Minister of State and Finance, announced that, in view of a deficit in the budget of more than \$100,000,000 a loan of at least \$75,000,000 would be necessary. Railroad development, large increases in the salaries of state officials, and the compulsory purchase of lands in Poland for settlement by German peasants are the chief needs for these new funds.

*The Prussian
Suffrage
Right.*

The question of reform in Prussia's suffrage system has been agitated for more than a decade. As has been noted more than once in these pages, the Prussian voting right is based almost exclusively upon a property qualification. There are three classes of electors, apportioned according to taxation values in such a manner that, up to the present time, the laboring classes have not been able to elect a single representative to the Diet, although they have a number in the imperial Parliament. The demonstrations in Berlin, early last month, to obtain direct manhood suffrage were engi-

neered by the Socialists. After the rioters had been suppressed by the police, Prime Minister von Bülow announced in the Diet that while the government recognizes the need for electoral reform these popular demonstrations would not hasten such reform in the slightest



BARON VON RHEINBABEN, PRUSSIAN MINISTER OF STATE AND FINANCE.

(Whose budget has caused much heated discussion in the Diet.)

degree. He declared it as the opinion of the government that manhood suffrage would not be for the good of the Prussian state. Many progressive Germans, however, including the eminent political and economic writer, Dr. Theodor Barth, who has recently returned to Germany after studying our own political and economic methods, have publicly announced that they will push to the end the campaign for direct manhood suffrage in Prussia. It is interesting to note in passing that the final outcome of the Moltke-Harden scandal trials, the significance of which was pointed out in this magazine last month, has been the conviction of Harden to four months' imprisonment for having criminally libeled von Moltke. The latter, however, and the rest of the so-called "camarilla" appear to have been completely and permanently discredited.

*How France
Is Holding
Her Own.*

Military glory is no longer the ambition and life object of the French people, as it was for nearly two centuries. It is becoming increasingly evident that the progressive decrease in the army and navy establishments of the republic, both in money spent and term of service for soldier and sailor, as well as the many evidences of administrative corruption and apparent inefficiency in both branches of the service, are not indications of biological decay in the French people. The French soldier and sailor are to-day capable of rendering splendid accounts of themselves in warfare. This is the deliberate judgment of keen German and British critics who have seen the French forces fighting in Morocco. A rather sensational editorial appeared some weeks ago in that usually sedate Parisian journal, the *Temps*, entitled "The World Arms, France Disarms," in which was pointed out that for the year 1908 the republic devotes a smaller per cent. of her budget by half to maintaining and developing her fighting equipment than any other naval and military nation of the world.

*France's
Financial
Dominance.*

It is evident that in the international competition as a fighting nation France is losing her rank. This is in all probability due to the



THE BIRD OF SCANDAL IN THE MOLTKE-HARDEN CASE.
ZEALOUS PRINCE BULOW: "Don't you worry about it, my dear; we'll soon clean it up again."
From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich).

Frenchman's growing dislike for war,—perhaps the result of Socialistic propaganda,—and his increasing wealth. That it is not a loss of actual position is believed not only by French economists, but by those of other European nations, who point in support of their view to the increasing wealth and economic prosperity of the French people and their gradual assumption of the banking supremacy of the world. The French are individually the richest of peoples. Statistics recently compiled by the ministry of finance of the republic show that more than one-half the Frenchmen who die leave property behind, and at least a quarter of all the population of France over seventy years of age have enough to live upon without appeal to charity. Cases of family poverty are extremely rare in France and instances of absolute want almost unknown. The famous statistician, Bertillon, recently demonstrated by figures that of every four Frenchmen of fifty years of age three own something of a character and sufficient value to be taxable by the government. If the tri-color no longer symbolizes a conquering military people, the franc has indeed become the symbol of the Frenchman's industry and the world-wide influence of his thrift.

*More State Aid
to Commerce
in France.*

Quite in line with the strengthening of the industrial and financial position of the French Republic by the evolution of economic forces is the determination of the Paris government, at the suggestion of M. Pichon, Minister of Foreign Affairs, to reorganize in the direction of greater practical efficiency the political and commercial machinery of the republic's foreign relations. According to a change announced to go into effect the first of the present month (a special decree authorizing this was issued by the Parliament April 29 last), all the diplomatic and commercial affairs of the Foreign Office will be concentrated in one department. A Bureau of Communications will be established to act as the distributing office for information and news, with particular reference to the home and foreign press. This department, it is announced, will be under the management of M. Herbette, son of a former French Ambassador at Berlin, a man well fitted by native gifts and experience to conduct a dignified, vigorous, and effective journalistic campaign of world scope. The French diplomatic and consular services are also to be slightly reorganized, and it is hoped that the new director, M. Georges

Louis, will infuse new life and vigor into the already well organized but somewhat perfunctory commercial service of France resident abroad.

British Politics.

The British Liberals are realizing the distance between promise and fulfilment. The difficulty of carrying out to a successful issue the important projects discussed in the campaign before the last general election, and in the face of the opposition of the House of Lords and the general conservatism of the British people, has made the progress of the present administration much slower than its friends had hoped, or even its enemies expected. Each successive "by" election goes against them, and it seems doubtful whether an appeal to the country would sustain the party. In domestic politics the questions of the tariff, labor legislation, and the ever-present Irish Home Rule, have been engrossing the attention of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and his cabinet. The serious illness of the Premier, at his advanced age (he will be seventy-two this year) has drawn sharp the issue of the future leadership of the Liberals. Speculation as to who is to succeed Sir Henry centers around John Morley, author and Secretary of the Indian Office, who himself has lived the three score and ten years; Mr. Herbert Asquith, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Mr. Lloyd-George, president of the Board of Trade. Mr. George is one of the youngest men in the cabinet, and his chances for future leadership have been greatly increased by his consummate diplomatic skill in bringing to a successful issue the negotiations with the labor leaders during the recent threatened railroad strike. Mr. Winston Churchill, Under-Secretary for the Colonies, is also openly ambitious for the premiership.

The Condition of British Trade.

British business and finance, in common with the commercial interests and operations of the rest of the civilized world, have been affected to an unusual degree by the period of financial depression which has been experienced throughout the entire world. Some months ago the Bank of England raised its rate of discount to 7 per cent., the highest rate in many years. Even this attempt to check the outward flow of gold, however, was apparently unsuccessful. As financial conditions have gradually bettered during the past few weeks the bank has gradually reduced its discount rate, until on January



GENERAL D'AMADE, THE NEW FRENCH COMMANDER IN MOROCCO.

(He is an example of the younger French fighting men who are opposed to the anti-militarist campaign of the Socialists.)

16 it was only 5 per cent., the discount in the open market falling to $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The year just passed did not show an encouraging commercial record to Englishmen, although the foreign trade of the empire actually exceeded record figures. American and German business conditions affect the British steel and textile trades, and the closing of a number of factories has thrown out of employment many thousands of workmen.

Liquor Legislation All Over the World. Questions of domestic economic interest that are of particular concern to Englishmen are the old-age pension proposals of the Liberal government and the liquor legislation which the administration has promised to bring about. The provisions of the licensing bill, under consideration by the Liberal government, have not been made public, but are said to mark an advance in legislation of this kind. It is worth while noting the progress made during the year just passed throughout the entire world in the matter of legal restrictions upon the traffic in intoxicants. First, there was the imperial Chinese edict against opium: then the French Parliament made some thorough investigations into the effect of alcoholism upon the citizens of the republic, and is now considering radical legis-

lation on this subject. The Government of Roumania has just passed a stringent regulation law, and severe legislation on the same subject has progressed through the Spanish Cortes. The advance made in prohibition legislation in the United States during the past two years has already been treated in a special article in these pages.

Morocco, Abyssinia, and the Congo. From the four corners of the

Africa comes the news of racial antagonism that is fast making the dark continent the probable seat of the world struggle of the future. In Morocco the tribesmen have resumed their attacks on Europeans, and France finds her task in quieting the country made very much more difficult by what now seems the certainty of a "Holy War" and the proclamation by the religious leaders of the deposition of the Sultan Abd-el-Aziz and the accession of his rival, Mulai Hafid, who announces that he will appeal to Turkey for aid against further European aggression. General Drude, who has been commanding the French forces, has been replaced by a younger and more aggressive man, General d'Amade, and it is reported that France and Spain have agreed perfectly upon a forward movement, with no dissent by Germany. The republic has now 7000 or 8000 European troops in Morocco. The Italians have had another disastrous encounter with the Abyssinians. Late in December, it is reported, a raid by a large force of Abyssinians upon Italian military posts in Somaliland resulted in the capture of the town of Lugh and some Italian officers. King Menelik, however, has disavowed the attack and apologized for it. The center of the continent is still the point of interest for the thousands of Americans and Europeans who believe that the Belgian King has abused his trust in the Congo. A formal statement issued by the Brussels government on January 10, upon the accession of the new Premier, M. Schollaert, denies that King Leopold has made any personal profit from the exploitation of the Congo, and replies to other charges made against the Belgian monarch.

German, British and Portuguese Africa. In German East Africa, Herr Dernburg, the Colonial Minister, reports much progress has been made in the way of economic development. A good many optimistic and cheerful observations have also been made by British Colonial Under-Secretary Mr. Churchill



Photograph by Mishkin, N. Y.

MADAM LUISA TETRAZZINI.
(The Italian soprano opera singer with the phenomenal voice.)

upon his return from his tour through the British colonies in South Africa. Britain, however, still has her troubles in the south of the continent. A revolt in Natal, under the leadership of the Zulu chief Dinizulu, has been brought to an end by the capture and trial of that chieftain, while an unsettled condition amounting to open revolt still exists in Swaziland. The Transvaal government, in the face of much excitement and opposition, is enforcing the provisions of the immigration restriction act requiring all Asiatics in that colony to register or be deported. This bears hard on the Hindus, who are themselves British subjects, as well as on the Chinese in the Transvaal. Between the German and the British possessions, in the Portuguese domain of Angola on the west coast of the continent also, there is a ferment over alleged atrocities against the natives by rapacious colonial officials. It should be noted also that a formal agreement between France and Liberia fixes the eastern boundary of the African republic, which had been in dispute for more than a quarter of a century.

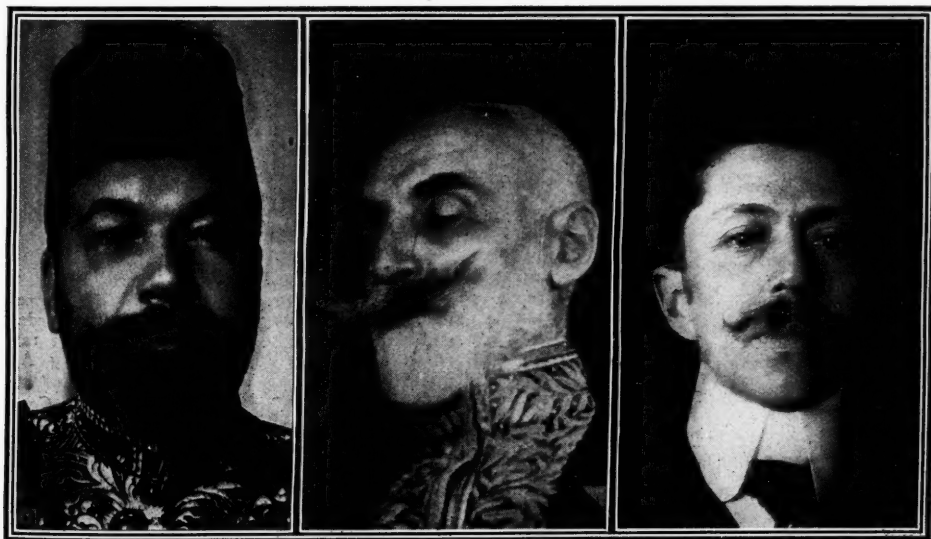
Mme.
Tetrazzini's
Triumph.

Not since the days of Nilsson, Gerster, and Patti has there been, in the operatic annals of New York, such a reception accorded to a dramatic singer as that given Madame Luisa Tetrazzini, the Italian soprano, upon her appearance at the Manhattan Opera House on January 15 as Violetta in the opera "Traviata." It was not the first time that Madame Tetrazzini had appeared on an American musical stage. She has sung in San Francisco and has been a favorite in Mexico and South America for a decade. The question was, would an audience in the American metropolis receive her as enthusiastically as she had been received by continental and English houses? There is no doubt of the greatness of Madame Tetrazzini's voice and the perfection of her acting. Indeed, the critics declare that it is in the combination of beautiful singing and the depth of dramatic feeling that the Italian singer's genius lies. Her voice is not the most perfect that has been heard in New York, but the color of her high notes and the intimate blending and mutual support of her musical and dramatic gifts have seldom if ever been equaled on any musical stage.

Do Americans
Really Love
Good Music?

Apropos of the New York debut of this Italian singer and the first production in New York of Charpentier's "Louise," a musical masterpiece

which has been receiving the homage of continental and English audiences for nearly a decade, quite a host of self-deprecating American critics have been repeating, in our daily and weekly press, the old, reiterated charge that Americans are not a music-understanding or a music-loving people. One of the most successful opera singers of the present season, Miss Mary Garden, herself an American girl, who received her education and achieved her first triumphs abroad, and is now charming New York audiences, contributes to a recent number of *Everybody's Magazine* a passionate wail on the "debasing" of music in America. She says: "Of the great modern school of music the American public knows as yet scarcely anything, and it is to-day quite content and happy with the operas of its grandmothers." Replying to this charge, Mr. W. J. Henderson, the eminent critic and author of books on music, declares that while we have as yet produced but little, we have the fresh and omnivorous appetite of youth and "a catholicity of judgment unparalleled in the world. . . . We have no national prejudices, no racial affections." We have, however, "that openness of mind which is one of the most striking and invaluable characteristics of any attitude toward musical art." American music lovers who have heard what European vocal art has to offer will agree with Mr. Henderson's analysis.



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Mehmed Ali Bey, Turkey.

L. A. Coronulas, Greece.

Luis Toledo, Guatemala.

THREE NEW MINISTERS TO THE UNITED STATES.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From December 21, 1907, to January 20, 1908.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 6.—Both branches reassemble after the holiday recess, but immediately adjourn on account of the death of Senator Mallory, of Florida.

January 7.—In the Senate, Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.) introduces an emergency currency bill.... In the House, Mr. Bennet (Rep., N. Y.) introduces a bill appropriating \$550,000 for improvements at the Ellis Island immigrant receiving station; Mr. Gill (Dem., Md.) introduces a resolution asking for all official papers bearing on the recent naval controversy.

January 8.—The House considers a bill for revision and codification of the laws.

January 9.—The Senate passes a bill to protect harbor defenses and fortifications from malicious injury; Mr. Hale (Rep., Maine) introduces a naval personnel bill, the chief provision of which is that naval vessels shall be commanded only by officers of the line.... The House devotes the session to the drawing of rooms for members in the new House office building.

January 10.—The House resumes consideration of the bill for codification of the laws.

January 11.—The House passes the resolution offered by Mr. Gill (Dem., Md.) calling for correspondence in connection with the naval controversy; Mr. Bennet (Rep., N. Y.) introduces a bill making ex-Presidents members at large of the House.

January 15.—The Senate passes the joint resolution remitting to China about \$13,000,000 of the Boxer indemnity; the resolution of Mr. Culbertson (Dem., Tex.) calling on Secretary Cortelyou for information as to Panama bond awards is adopted.... The House continues consideration of the bill for revision and codification of the criminal laws.

January 16.—The Senate passes a bill appropriating \$3,500,000 for a New York post-office building, and confirms the nomination of Regis L. Post as Governor of Porto Rico.... The House votes down all Democratic amendments to the Civil Code bill.

January 20.—The House passes the bill providing for a new immigrant station at Philadelphia.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

December 24.—Rear-Admiral Brownson, U. S. N., resigns as chief of the Bureau of Navigation.

December 25.—Governor Broward, of Florida, appoints William James Bryan (Dem.) United States Senator to succeed S. R. Mallory, deceased.... The Commissioners of Accounts of New York City charge the members of the Board of Water Supply with misconduct and incompetency.

December 28.—President Roosevelt counter-

mands the order for federal troops to leave Goldfield on condition that Governor Sparks within five days issues a call for an extra session of the Nevada Legislature.... The Republican State Central Committee of Kansas indorses Secretary Taft for President, and calls a State convention for March 4 at Topeka.

December 30.—Secretary Taft speaks at Boston, upholding the position of the national Administration in relation to the recent financial stringency.... Governor Sparks, of Nevada, calls a special session of the State Legislature to meet on January 14.

January 1.—Judge Pritchard of the United States Court issues an injunction restraining the South Carolina Dispensary Board from disposing of funds.... The New York Legislature meets and organizes.

January 2.—President Roosevelt appoints Capt. John E. Pillsbury chief of the Bureau of Navigation to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Rear-Admiral Brownson.... The supporters of Secretary Taft carry their point in the meeting of the Ohio Republican State Committee, which votes to call primaries on February 11 and the State convention on March 3.

January 3.—Senator Foraker, of Ohio, refuses to be bound by the terms of the call issued by the Republican State Committee.

January 4.—Secretary of the Navy Metcalf issues orders formally assigning Surgeon Charles F. Stokes to command of the hospital ship *Relief*.

January 5.—Superintendent of Schools Chancellor, of the District of Columbia, is dismissed by the Board of Education for making alleged statements derogatory to officials.

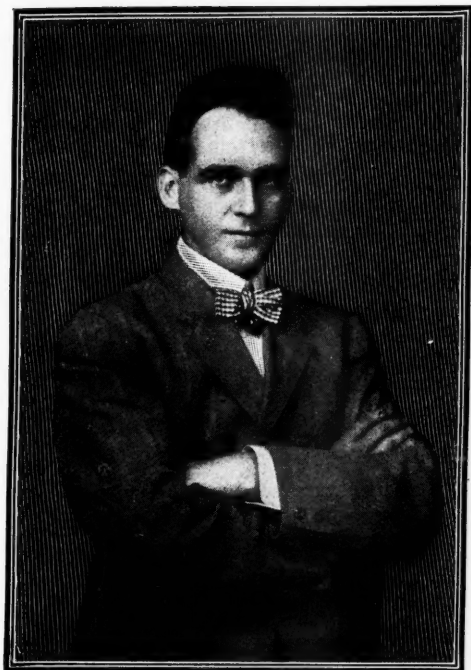
January 6.—United States Supreme Court declares the Employers' Liability law unconstitutional.... Admiral Brownson's letter of resignation as chief of the Bureau of Navigation is made public by President Roosevelt.

January 7.—James H. Higgins (Dem.) is inaugurated Governor of Rhode Island for the second time.

January 8.—The Republican State Committee of Oklahoma indorses Secretary Taft for President.... Attorney-General Bonaparte orders suits to be brought against a number of railroads charged with violating the Safety Appliance law.

January 9.—A decision of the District Court of Appeals at San Francisco wipes out the convictions of Schmitz and Ruef.... A letter is made public from Secretary Taft to the secretary of the Ohio Federation of Labor, giving Mr. Taft's views on the use and abuse of injunctions.... The progressive faction of the Republican party in Iowa gains control of the State Central Committee.

January 10.—Secretary Taft addresses the



HON. WILLIAM JAMES BRYAN.

(Appointed to fill the unexpired term of the late Senator Mallory, of Florida.)

People's Institute of New York City in Cooper Union on the relations of labor and capital.

January 15.—The Maryland Legislature elects John Walter Smith (Dem.) United States Senator for the full term of six years, beginning March 4, 1909, and Senator William Pinkney Whyte (Dem.) to fill the unexpired term of the late Senator Gorman.

January 16.—President Roosevelt approves the recommendation of the Isthmian Canal Commission that the width of the Panama Canal locks be increased to 110 feet....Senator Foraker, of Ohio, issues a reply to the same set of questions relating to the use and abuse of injunctions that was recently answered by Secretary Taft.

January 20.—The Pennsylvania Supreme Court declares the 2-cent railroad fare law unconstitutional....Corporation Counsel Pendleton, of New York City, advises Mayor McClellan that the Ashokan Dam charges should be dropped.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

December 21.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 354 to 177, passes the bill providing for the devolution of church property to the state.

December 23.—The Shah of Persia accepts all the stipulations submitted by his cabinet and Parliament.

December 24.—An edict is issued in Peking,

China, warning the people to make no further demands, and authorizing the framing of a law for the regulation of political societies.

December 25.—A decree is issued by the Portuguese Government fixing the elections for the Chamber of Deputies for April 5, 1908....The Dutch cabinet resigns, owing to its defeat on the army estimates in the second chamber....The trial begins in St. Petersburg of the 169 signatories of the Viborg manifesto, members of the Liberal and Labor parties in the first Russian Duma.

December 26.—The Indian National Congress opens at Surat, but owing to the action of extremists is suspended.

December 28.—It is announced that Lord Curzon is a candidate for the vacancy created among the Irish representative peers by the death of Lord Kilmaine....The Bulgarian Government proclaims Panitz and Sandansky and their confederates to be brigands....The Shah of Persia takes oath before Parliament to support the Persian constitution....The Emperor of Japan opens the Parliament....The Russian Duma passes an appropriation of \$7,500,000 for the relief of twelve provinces suffering from famine....Bureaus of information regarding constitutional government in China are closed in Peking.

December 30.—Signor Severino Casana is appointed Italian Minister of War in place of General Vigano, resigned.

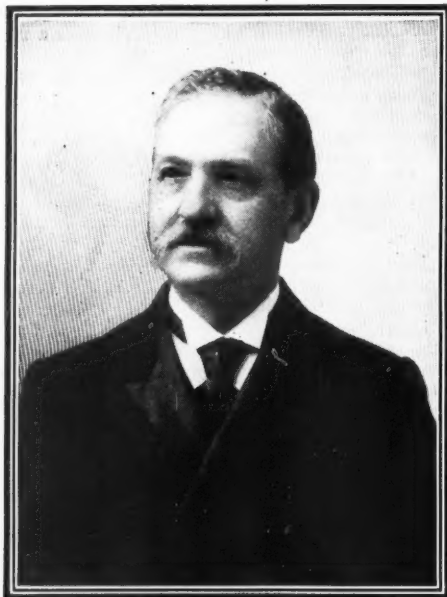
December 31.—One hundred and sixty-seven members of the first Russian Duma who signed the Viborg manifesto are sentenced to three months' imprisonment; two of the accused persons are acquitted.

January 1.—The government of Manitoba purchases the Bell telephone system in the province for \$3,300,000, payment to be made in forty-year 4 per cent. bonds....An uprising of the Mosquito Indians against President Zelaya is reported from Nicaragua.



Hon. Thomas F. Gore. Hon. Robert L. Owen.

UNITED STATES SENATORS FROM OKLAHOMA.



THE LATE CHARLES EMORY SMITH.
(Postmaster-General in the McKinley Cabinet.)

January 2.—Nineteen Russians are arrested on a charge of conspiring to murder the Dowager Empress....All the members of the Executive Committee of the Popular Socialist party in Russia are indicted on the charge of conspiracy to overthrow the government.

January 3.—It is announced that M. Briand will take the post of Minister of Justice in the French cabinet, retaining the portfolio of Public Worship.

January 4.—M. Doumergue, Minister of Commerce in the French cabinet, is transferred to the ministry of public instruction, and M. Cruppi becomes Minister of Commerce....The Prussian Minister of Finance announces that bids will be asked for a loan of \$75,000,000....King Gustav of Sweden orders the abolishment of the pompous ceremonies with which the Parliament has been opened.

January 9.—M. Schollaert, recently appointed Minister of the Interior of Belgium, accepts in addition the post of Premier.

January 11.—Mulai Hafid is proclaimed Sultan of Morocco, and a holy war is declared.

January 14.—Marquis Saionji, the Japanese Premier, tenders his resignation, which the Emperor refuses; the cabinet division over finances is settled by the elimination of the Minister of Finance and the Minister of Communication, their posts being taken by the ministers of Justice and of the Interior, respectively....The German Minister of the Interior says that a bill will be introduced increasing the coinage of silver.

January 16.—The formal opening of the first Swedish Parliament under the reign of King

Gustav takes place at Stockholm....A revolutionary movement against the Haitian Government is begun under the leadership of Jean Juneau, a former insurgent.

January 17.—William O'Brien and Timothy Healy decide to rejoin the Irish Nationalist party under the leadership of John Redmond.

January 18.—The British Liberals lose a seat in Parliament by the election of Capt. Morrison-Bell, Unionist, for the Asburton division of Devon....President Castro of Venezuela annuls the contract between the government and the Venezuelan salt monopoly, an English corporation.

January 19.—The Progressive party of Japan adopts a platform attacking the cabinet for bad finance and weak diplomacy.

January 20.—The Haitian Government forces attack and recapture the town of St. Marc, the insurgents offering slight resistance....Lord Curzon is elected a representative peer for Ireland.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

December 26.—The Governor of Trinidad entertains the officers of the American fleet of battleships at Port of Spain.

December 28.—The Emperor of Japan, in a speech opening Parliament, lays stress on the increasingly cordial relations with foreign powers....Natives of India refusing to register themselves are ordered to leave the Transvaal within forty-eight hours; 5000 leave.

December 31.—The Japanese Government replies to the suggestions offered by the United States relative to the future restriction of emigration.

January 6.—The French Government authorizes the statement that it expects a peaceful settlement of the questions at issue between Japan and America and is the sincere friend of both countries.

January 8.—It is announced that Japan has made proposals to China for the settlement of the dispute over telegraph lines.

January 10.—The Belgian Government issues its reply to the Congo State commission.

January 11.—Baron Takahira is informed by the Japanese Government of his appointment as Ambassador to the United States....Representatives of nationalities suffering from oppression by the Sultan decide at a secret congress in Paris to unite to establish a constitutional régime in Turkey.

January 12.—The American battleship fleet is warmly welcomed at Rio de Janeiro by the Brazilian Government and the municipal authorities.

January 13.—President Penna of Brazil reduces the tariff duties on a number of productions of the United States in view of the favor extended to Brazilian coffee by this Government and to mark the visit of the American fleet.

January 14.—The United States receives from Spain \$570,000 in full payment of the principal of indemnity claims resulting from depredations of Spanish privateers upon American commerce between the years 1819 and 1834....The officers of the American fleet at Rio de Janeiro pay a

visit to President Penna....A mission from Mulai Hafid arrives at Paris to inform the French Government that the so-called holy war in Morocco is not directed against foreigners and that the treaties made with Abd-el-Aziz will be respected.

January 16.—The French troops under Gen. d'Amade defeat a large force of Moors near Settal, Morocco.

January 17.—The diplomatic corps at Port au Prince, Haiti, protest against the expressed intention of the Haitian Government to shell the towns of Gonaives and St. Marc....Japan's occupation and annexation to Corea of the Chen-Tao district cause alarm in St. Petersburg.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

December 21.—Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria receives a popular welcome in Vienna on his first public appearance since his severe illness.

December 23.—The funeral of Lord Kelvin takes place in Westminster Abbey (see page 171)....Seven hundred survivors of the Indian mutiny are reviewed by Lord Roberts in London....Thousands of strikers in the Chilean nitrate fields return to work....The United States Supreme Court denies a petition of Messrs. Greene and Gaynor for a review of their conviction and sentence....The Executive Committee of the Carnegie Hero Fund Commission votes \$35,000 for the sufferers from the Monongah, W. Va., mine disaster.

December 24.—It is officially announced in England that action against the Zulu chief Silwane is abandoned....Business again ceases in Teheran and armed bands assemble in the public squares.

December 25.—Christmas was observed in the American battleship fleet at Port of Spain.... The New England cotton spinners decide to reduce their production by 25 per cent.; they control 80 per cent. of the spindles in New England.

December 26.—Kurdish raiders surround Urmiah in Persian Armenia and complete anarchy prevails there....The Bureau of Insular Affairs at Washington buys for \$3000 one-thousandth of a dram of radium to be used for experiments in the Philippines....Admiral Dewey celebrates his seventieth birthday.

December 27.—Dr. Sven Hedin announces that he has discovered in Tibet the true sources of the rivers Brahma Putra and Indus.

December 30.—The coffin of T. C. Druce is opened in Highgate Cemetery, London, and is found to contain the remains of an elderly man....A new pass into Alexandria harbor, thirty-five feet deep and 600 feet wide, is opened by Prince Aziz Hassan....The Canadian Pacific Railroad directors decide to issue \$23,336,000 of new stock, to be offered to stockholders on a basis of 20 per cent. of their holdings....School boards of the cities of Porto Rico adopt resolutions looking to a large extension of the system of instruction.

January 1.—The new law prohibiting the sale of alcoholic beverages goes into effect in Georgia.

January 2.—Because of improved financial

conditions in the United States and Germany the Bank of England lowers its rate of discount from 7 to 6 per cent....Judge Pritchard, of the United States Circuit Court, appoints S. D. Warfield and R. L. Williams receivers for the Seaboard Air Line Railway.

January 3.—Night riders make raids in the tobacco districts of Kentucky (see page 168)....The cotton-mill owners of Manchester, England, threaten a lockout of 200,000 employees unless the strikers yield by January 18....Maximilien Harden is convicted in Germany of libeling Count Kuno von Moltke, and is sentenced to four months' imprisonment and to pay the costs of the present and former trials.

January 4.—George A. Pettibone is acquitted at Boise, Idaho, of complicity in the murder of ex-Gov. Steunenburg....The jury in the fourth trial of Caleb Powers, accused of murdering Governor Goebel of Kentucky, disagrees, ten voting for acquittal.

January 8.—Prominent coal operators meet in Washington to devise means for preventing disasters in mines (see page 225)....A. B. Stickney and Charles H. F. Smith are appointed receivers for the Chicago Great Western Railroad by Federal Judge Sanborn of St. Paul.

January 9.—The East River tunnel, extending the New York subway from Manhattan to Brooklyn borough, is opened for traffic.

January 10.—The North German Lloyd and the Hamburg American Steamship companies, it is announced at Bremen, have entered into a four-year agreement which will result in a unity of action against the British lines in the ocean rate war.

January 12.—Seventy thousand persons attempting demonstrations for general suffrage in Berlin are dispersed by large forces of police; many are sabered.

January 13.—Nearly 200 persons are killed in a theater fire at Boyertown, Pa....Henry Farman makes a successful flight in an airship heavier than air at Paris, and wins the Deutsch-Archdeacon prize of \$10,000....Coal-carrying railroads petition Attorney-General Bonaparte to postpone beyond May 1 the operation of the new law compelling them to dispose of their coal properties....The New York Clearing-House Association decides to admit to membership trust companies on condition that they keep a 25 per cent. cash reserve.

January 14.—Prof. Paul Milyukov discusses constitutional government for Russia at Carnegie Hall, New York City.

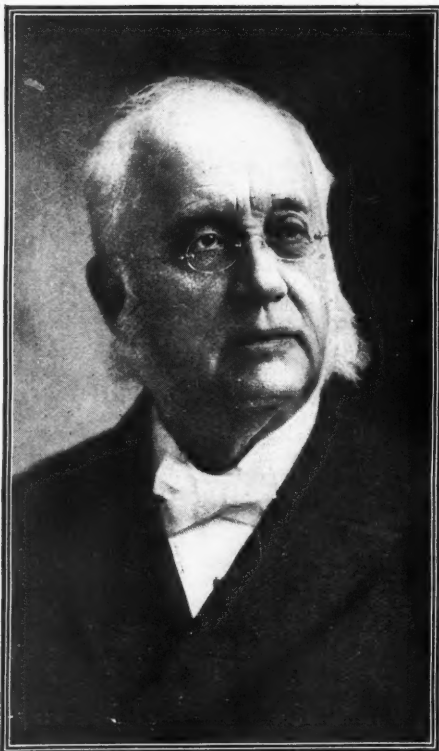
January 15.—An earthquake, followed by a tidal wave, causes much damage at Gonaives, Haiti.

January 16.—The rate of discount of the Bank of England is reduced from 6 to 5 per cent.

January 17.—The American torpedo-boat squadron arrives at Rio de Janeiro from Pernambuco....The Sovereign Bank of Canada decides to go into liquidation.

January 18.—John R. Walsh is found guilty on nearly fifty counts of misapplying the funds of the Chicago National Bank.

January 19.—An anarchist plot to destroy a part of the American battleship fleet is discovered.



THE LATE BISHOP E. G. ANDREWS, OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

ered at Rio de Janeiro....The Guatemalan Northern Railway, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific, is formally opened at Guatemala City:

OBITUARY

December 21.—Musurus Pasha, Turkish ambassador in London, 66.

December 22.—Dr. Henry Patterson Loomis, professor of therapeutics and clinical medicine at Cornell University, 49.

December 23.—United States Senator Stephen R. Mallory, of Florida, 59....Pierre Jules Cesar Janssen, the French astronomer and physicist, 84....Prof. Oskar Lassar, the well-known German dermatologist, 59....Prof. Adalbert von Tobold, known as the father of German laryngology, 80....Herman N. Hyneman, a portrait painter of New York City, 49.

December 26.—Rear-Admiral Charles W. Abbot, U. S. N., retired, 78....Joseph Szmyt, editor of the *Wielkopolska* of Posen, Prussian Poland, 72....Jean Joseph Cornely, the French journalist and author, 62.

December 27.—John Chandler Bancroft Davis, formerly Minister to Germany and for many years official reporter of the United States Supreme Court, 85....Ex-Gov. Elihu Emory Jackson, of Maryland, 71....Carl Meisel, a distinguished Boston violinist, 79.

December 28.—Dr. Coleman Sellers, engineer and scientist, 81....William Marcus Thompson, editor of *Reynolds' Newspaper*, London, 51....Mrs. Letitia Tyler Semple, a former mistress of the White House, 86.

December 29.—Dr. Julian Dunajewski, one of the most eminent of Polish statesmen, 85.

December 30.—Chief Justice John D. Cassoday, of the Wisconsin Supreme Court, 77....Enos Houghton Tucker, one of the pioneer railroad men of New England, 93.

December 31.—Bishop Edward G. Andrews, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 82....Jean Francois Edmond Guyot-Dessaigne, French Minister of Justice, 75....M. de Troos, Premier of Belgium....Charles Hermann-Leon, animal and genre painter, of Paris, 70....Prof. Thomas Day Seymour, of Yale University, 60....Judge John Watson Barr, a distinguished Kentucky jurist, 82....Brig.-Gen. Alfred Lindley Lee, a veteran of the Civil War, 74.

January 2.—Dr. Nicholas Senn, one of the most widely known surgeons in the United States, 63.

January 3.—Rev. Dr. Denis J. Stafford, rector of St. Patrick's Roman Catholic Church, of Washington, D. C., 47.

January 4.—Prof. Charles Augustus Young, one of the leading astronomers of the United States, 73.

January 6.—Ex-Congressman A. S. Berry, of Kentucky, 73.

January 7.—Bishop George Worthington, of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of Nebraska, 67....Prince Stanislaus Poniatowski, head of the historic Polish house of that name....George L. Chase, president of the Hartford Fire Insurance Company, 80....Former State Senator Samuel Fessenden, of Connecticut, 60.

January 9.—Wilhelm Busch, the German caricaturist, 76....Abraham Goldfaden, the Yiddish poet and dramatist, 68.

January 10.—George F. Evans, vice-president and general manager of the Maine Central Railroad, 61.

January 11.—Dr. Frank Herbert Eaton, a well-known Canadian educationist, 57.

January 12.—Rabbi Bernhard Felsenphal, a distinguished Hebrew scholar and leader of "reformed Judaism," 86.

January 13.—Holger H. H. Drachmann, the Danish poet and author, 61.

January 14.—James Ryder Randall, writer of "Maryland, My Maryland," 69....William Livingston Alden, an American journalist, 70....Julius T. Melchers, the sculptor, 78.

January 15.—Dr. William Rollins Shipman, dean of Tufts College, 72....Edward Henry Strobel, adviser to the King of Siam, 52.

January 16.—Mrs. Lydia K. Bradley of Peoria, Ill., well known for her philanthropy, 92.

January 18.—Edmund Clarence Stedman, the banker-poet, 74....Ex-Gov. Charles H. Sawyer, of New Hampshire, 68.

January 19.—Charles Emory Smith, editor of the *Philadelphia Press*, formerly Postmaster-General and former Minister to Russia, 66.

CARTOONS OF THE MONTH, CHIEFLY POLITICAL.



SECRETARY TAFT (to the President): "What's that blamed racket ahead, Theodore?"
Secretary Taft does not find the trip to the White House devoid of adventure and opposition.
From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).



THEY MUST GO UNDER THE YOKE OF THE ROOSEVELT
POLICIES.

From the *World* (New York).



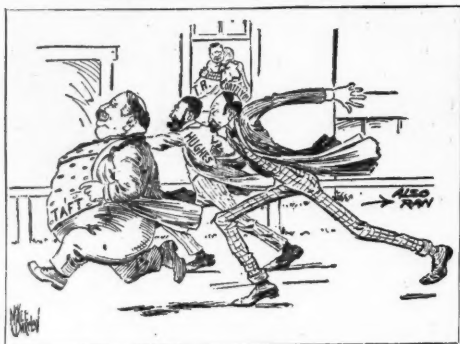
"WHOA, BILL!"

There are times when these riding tests amount to
positive cruelty!

From the *Press* (New York).



HE'LL GET IT BACK SOON.
From the *Globe* (New York).



HE'S HEFTY, BUT HE'S FAST.
They thought he was a draft horse, but he seems to be winning in a canter!
From the *News* (Baltimore).



WHO'S GOT THE BAGGAGE CHECK?
From the *Commercial Tribune* (Cincinnati).



THE LITTLE FELLOW KNOWS.
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



THE MINNESOTA MOSES.—FINDING A NEW MOSES IN THE BULRUSHES.

AUNT DEMOCRACY: "A real new Moses! Won't it be a relief if I can only lose the old one!"

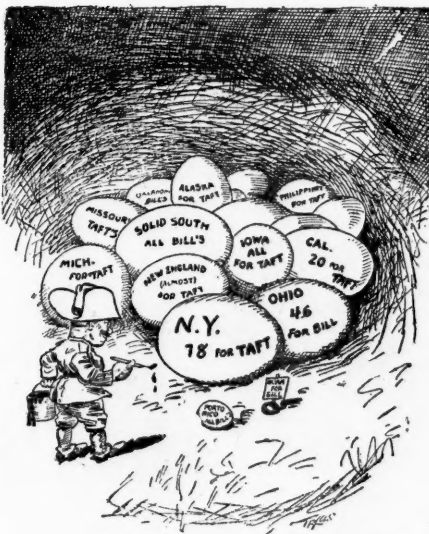
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



WHY NOT SWEAR OFF, MR. BRYAN?
From the *World* (New York).



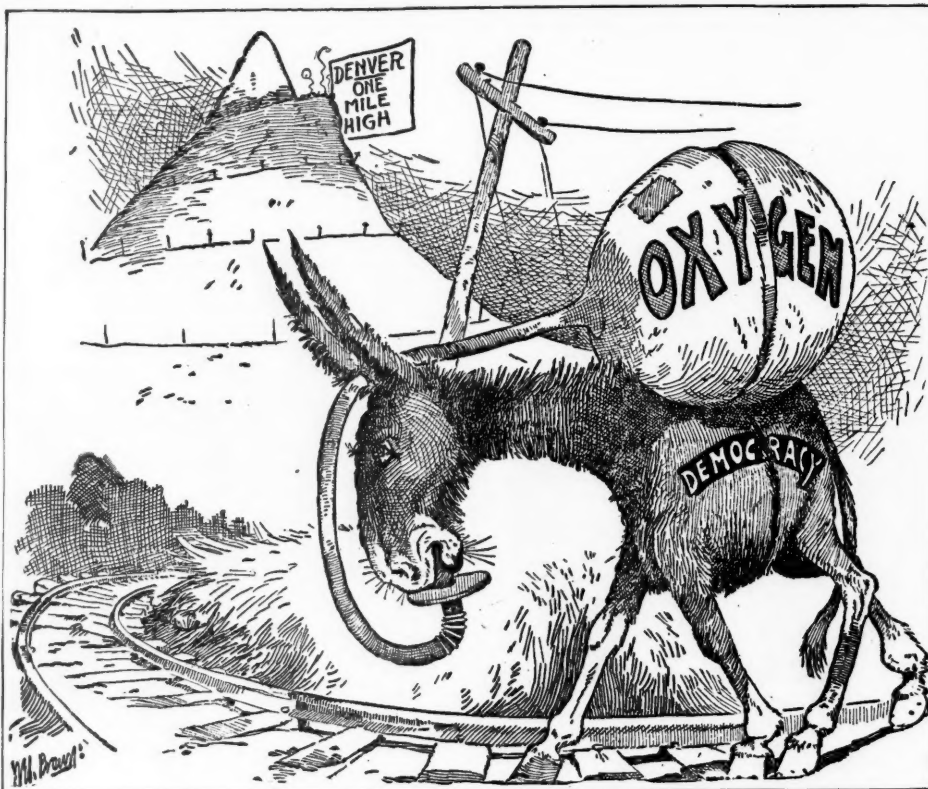
THE FAVORITE SONS' GLEE CLUB.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



COUNTING 'EM BEFORE THEY'RE HATCHED!
From the *Press* (New York).



"WELL, SAKES ALIVE, LESLIE, WHERE DID YOU COME FROM?"
From the *Register and Leader* (Des Moines).



PREPARING FOR THE THIN MOUNTAIN AIR.

From the *Post* (Denver).

"And around the dear ruins each wish of my heart
Shall twine itself verdantly still."

—Moore.

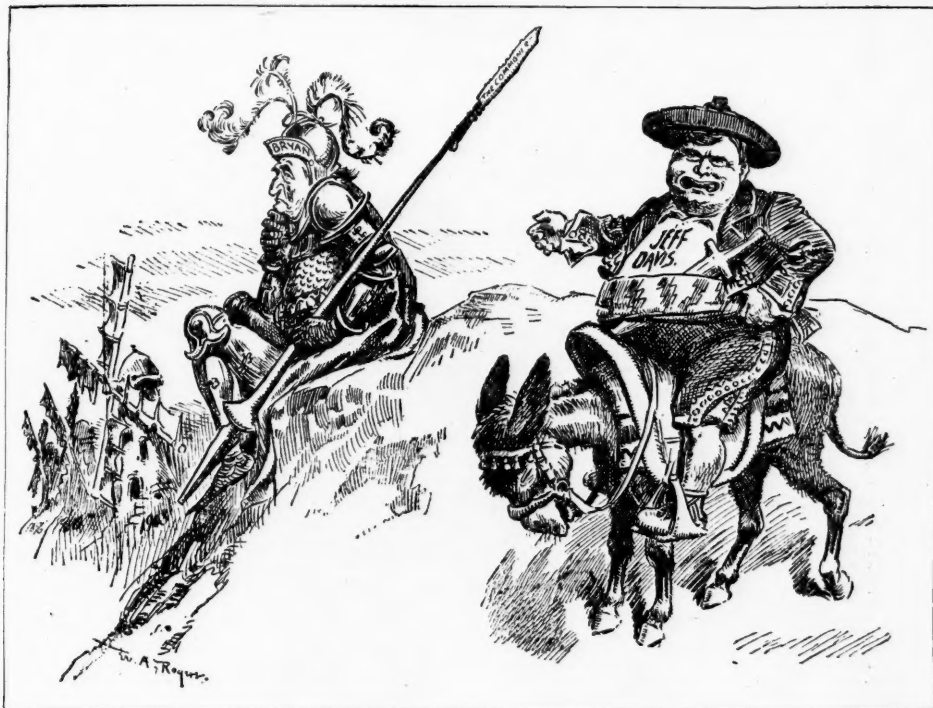
From the *World* (New York).

1896-1900

1907

BRYAN, THEN AND NOW.

From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).



"THE BELTED KNIGHT,"—AND HIS SANCHE PANZA.
From the *Herald* (New York).



AT LAST THE GATES SWING OUTWARD.
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



THE STEPMOTHER.
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

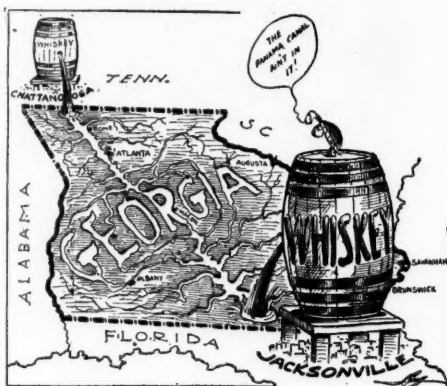


MR. TILLMAN SHOWING THE NEW ARKANSAS SENATOR A FEW TRICKS.

From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).

J. J. HILL, PROSPERITY ARTIST.

A year ago the Great Northern magnate gave Prosperity a black eye. Now he is painting it white.
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



GEORGIA'S NEW IRRIGATION SYSTEM.

From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).



"PLEASE BUY MY FLOWERS."
From the *Pioneer-Press* (St. Paul).



TO KEEP THE CROPS MOVING.
Congress proposes to put a new policeman on the corner of Trade Avenue and Commercial Street.
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



FOLLOWING THE FLAG.
From the *Herald* (New York).

THE TOBACCO WAR IN KENTUCKY.

BY MARTHA McCULLOCH-WILLIAMS.

AN ordinary screen-door, set in the wall of a white frame Kentucky farm-house, is the last thing from which one would expect a curdly thrill in this year of peace. Save in one particular this door was nowise unlike a million others, in other homesteads,—it swung true on its hinges and had wire of a fine mesh. But amid the meshes, and on the frame, there were the marks of forty-seven bullets. The bullets had been fired upon an August night of 1907, when only the screen door protected the family sleeping inside. The bullets came quartering,—five hundred of them it may be, maybe even a thousand. Some bored round holes through window-panes, others penetrated weatherboarding, laths, and plaster, and sped on to bury themselves in the opposite wall. Still others zipped along the roof, chipping shingles in their flight. They were revolver bullets, or those from Winchester rifles. So many were there, and fired at such close range, it is almost a miracle that any soul within reach of them escaped alive.

Five people were within reach of them,—Stephen Moseley, a farmer of Trigg County, Ky., his wife, and his three sons. Mr. Moseley was wounded in three places; his wife came near losing an eye through having fragments of screen-wire driven into it. The lads saved themselves by dropping from their beds to the floor, at their mother's order, and rolling as far out of range as was possible. The telephone wire had been cut before the attack. There were possibly 100 men in the attacking party. After the shooting they called Moseley out, whipped him hard, warned him not to seek legal redress, then rode away, whooping and yelling.

Moseley's case is set forth thus particularly because it is a typical one, and because I saw it. There are possibly a dozen parallels to it in the length and breadth of the Black Patch, the export tobacco district of western Kentucky and northwestern Tennessee. Nature and civilization have alike been kind to the Patch. The soil is, for the most part, a rich reddish clay-loam, with limestone underlay, level in some parts, in other parts rolling, in still other parts approaching to hilly. Fair water is plenty, the climate equable, and the inhabitants mainly Americans of old Revolu-

tionary Virginia and Carolina stock. The first settlers brought in three things that remain to this day,—namely, tobacco seed, tobacco knowledge, and a stiff-necked love of liberty so far-reaching that it includes liberty to make other folk see things its own way.

Among such a people Moseley's case could not happen without a cause and an occasion. The cause was the tobacco fight, the occasion a suspicion of disloyalty on his part toward the Planters' Protective Association, the organization of tobacco growers that is waging the fight. That is to say, upon the surface; personal grudges may have lain deeper down. Moseley had been laggard in joining the embattled farmers. The association was formed in 1904, yet he did not go into it until 1907.

The association was born of imperious necessity. Tobacco prices had fallen, fallen until they were much below the cost of production. The growers cried out "Monopoly," alleging collusion betwixt the Tobacco Trust and the Regie, their main customers. The Regie,—pronounced ree-jee,—is the machinery through which tobacco is supplied to the several foreign governments which make of its importation and sale highly profitable monopolies. Collusion was unnecessary,—the trust and the Regie had simply to agree on rates and territory, to fix beyond peradventure the price of the Patch's main money crop.

Tobacco requires throughout hard hand labor, and plenty of it. It is ready for market the fall and winter after growth. Current rates for tobacco in January, 1904, meant, according to Kentucky calculations, less than 30 cents a day for an able-bodied man's work in raising it. Out of the 30 cents he must feed, clothe, and lodge himself and his family. Not an alluring prospect,—forbidding, indeed, rather, in view of the fact that tobacco is essentially a poor man's crop. Seed may be had for the asking; there is no need of costly machinery; moreover, a fair crop requires no great breadth of land. Half the growers live on the crop while raising it,—that is to say, they get advances of food, clothing, and a very little money, commonly from the land-owner, whose sole security is the crop, and who is financed by a warehouseman or factor, who in turn borrows from the banks.

There is thus the pressure of debt to sell the crop. With half of it thus forced to market it seemed hopeless to undertake pooling and holding any considerable part of it. But some way the thing was done,—mainly through the efforts of a rich yet public-spirited planter, F. G. Ewing, of Glen Raven, Robertson County, Tenn. He managed to get through village banks enough money to tide the association over its experimental first season. But he could not get the mass, hardly even the majority, of tobacco growers in line. That remained for the night rider.

Beyond question the night rider has been the most efficient association missionary,—a virulent one, it is true, yet he has brought the people in. To make him real and credible there must be something more of detail. While the tobacco planters were getting together, their adversaries were not supine; on the contrary, very wide awake, affecting to laugh the association to scorn, yet all the while watching it narrowly, and countering its moves,—often indeed with a checkmate. Tobacco prices went up,—way up for the hill billys. Hill billy is the cant name for those who stay out of the association, selling their crops as they please. The more hill billys there were, the less the association could bother those it was fighting. The association is in essence a selling trust, opposed to the buying monopolies. It takes in hand the tobacco pledged to it, fixes the price, and holds until something gives way, somewhere. Its trump card is the fact that the trust and the Regie *must* have tobacco,—tobacco suiting foreign requirements, which they cannot get outside the Patch.

Absolute control of this tobacco supply spells victory for the organization. The hill billy is what stands in the way of this absolute control. Both combatants understand that. The trust and the Regie encourage him to stand fast with high and higher prices for crops in hand and to come. The night rider discourages him in ways better befitting Russia than free America. Scraping plant-beds, thus destroying all chance of a crop, is one of them, almost the mildest; burning sacked wheat, newly threshed, or haystacks, or barns, another. Blowing up threshing machines whose owners dare thresh for hill billys is still another. Add whippings, threats, scrawled coffins and cross-bones, the pulling up of young tobacco, the killing of pasturing stock, yet still the tale of outrages is incomplete. These things, no less than the shooting up of farmsteads, are directed at

individuals. The night-riding mass, when fairly and fully in stride, goes out to shoot up and burn out a town.

Nearly all towns in the Patch are reckoned trust strongholds, by reason of holding warehouses and handling houses, operated by the trust and the Regie. Therefore the towns have slept under guard, now for three years past. Notwithstanding, in five of them the night riders have done their will. The beginning was at Trenton, a village of Todd County, Ky. In December, 1905, a big tobacco factory was burned there by masked and mounted men heavily armed. Less than a month after a tobacco house was dynamited at Elkton, the capital of Todd County. Those who did the blowing up held up a train and searched it for tobacco buyers, but found none. Rewards were offered, and there was perfunctory looking into things, but to this day nobody has been punished or even openly accused.

More burnings, scattered, sporadic, of barns and isolated tobacco-houses came to pass within that season. It was not, however, until Thanksgiving night, 1906, that the night riders did anything really spectacular. Around midnight, 300 strong, they swooped upon Princeton, the capital of Caldwell County, Ky., set guards over the police, fire department, telegraph, and telephone offices, stationed men at street-crossings to turn back inquisitive citizens, then set fire to two factories, watched them burn to coals, and only then rode away, yelling and shooting at the stars as they went. One of the burned establishments, belonging to the Imperial Tobacco Company, the British arm of the trust, had six acres of floor space, thick walls of brick, a full complement of steam machinery for "ordering" tobacco, and was accounted the biggest and best equipped stemmery in the world. The loss from this night's work was in the neighborhood of \$100,000. Those inflicting it had, however, in their own phrase, and to their own minds, "toted fair." They had warned the insurance companies three months back to cancel policies, hoping, it must be said for them, thus to frighten the men in charge into joining the association. Men of parts, family, and standing, persons of weight and substance in the community, within sight of the gaping ruins, justified the lawless action upon plea of necessity.

The same force of night riders aimed to burn Hopkinsville, the county seat of Christian County, a very little later, but were foiled by a vigilant mayor, who fears not

man nor night rider, and were forced to wait a full year. In between, the night riders amused themselves with such things as were done to Moseley, also many others in that line. But on Friday, December 7, 1907, they burned out and shot up Hopkinsville, firing three factories, shooting out windows by streetfuls, wounded one man, whipped another dangerously, and got out of town scot-free, though in the hastily organized pursuit two of them were so badly wounded it is said they have since died. The night was absolutely still; otherwise the town would have gone up in fire and smoke. The fire-house was heavily guarded, and no effort to save property permitted. The actual loss was over \$100,000,—potentially, it is beyond estimate. Yet even after the State troops came, with the Governor offering huge rewards, nobody felt safe. The citizens enrolled to protect the town, and watched side by side with the soldiers. Both the town papers, as well as the press at large, spoke up manfully for law and order; the civil machinery was set actively in motion; but still people speak with bated breath of the outrage. Russellville, in Logan County, was burned out three weeks later. There the fire spread from tobacco-houses to several of the business blocks. The resulting loss was heavy. Altogether the damage from night riding must run well above \$1,000,000. This without counting in the White Burley regions, which have an organization and troubles of their own.

Paducah, on the edge of the Patch, lives in fear of attack. So does Clarksville, Tenn., upon the Cumberland River, the oldest and best known among tobacco-market towns west of the Alleghanies. Tennessee's tobacco counties, which adjoin Kentucky, have indeed had their full share of night riding. Governor Patterson has standing rewards out, aggregating \$4000, for the arrest and conviction of night-rider criminals, but it is unlikely they will be claimed. Men arrested for the crimes which caused the issuance of his proclamation,—the burning of a cross-roads store and the pulling up of young tobacco,—have been triumphantly acquitted. In various courts there are a few other indictments, most of them hanging fire. So far, the net result of prosecutions is two men, one white, one black, serving sentences of a year for scraping plantbeds. Both, it is said, have confessed that they were set on by agents of the trust.

Things here set forth cannot have come to pass without affecting profoundly the life of

the whole people. It is a most piteous effect. The bitterness of Civil War times, when the Patch was debatable land, and sharply divided in sentiment, is as nothing to the present strife. Witness the case of churches rent in twain,—association members refusing to commune with those outside the pale. There is discord even in the schools,—children of each sort reviling the faith of the other. There is also a practical business boycott. Stockmen, especially cattle dealers, must join the association if they hope to do business. Merchants are warned to be friendly to the cause,—so are doctors, lawyers, even ministers. There has been wild talk of requiring all these to refuse their ministrations to hill billys. It has come to no more than talk,—a fact creditable to human nature.

Against all this let it be clearly set forth that the association has accomplished certain results. By raising the price of tobacco from less than \$4 per 100 pounds to a fraction more than \$9 it has brought the plain people up out of the miry pit, the slough of debt and despond, and set their feet in the way of prosperity. The towns show it faintly,—in the country he who runs may read. New-painted houses, fields in good heart and tilth, miles on miles of new wire fences, rubber-tired traps drawn by spanking teams, most of all the good roads pushing out fanwise to reach the remotest regions, and the netted telephone wires, over which if they choose the back-country folk can hear the big world breathe, all tell the same story. Bank deposits have quadrupled, the money circulation well-nigh doubled. Mortgages have shrunk beyond the convenience of investors, and land-values so increased that the countryside is in danger of growing purse-proud.

These things the association pleads in excuse of the black deeds alleged against it. Whether or no they are worth their cost is easily debatable. But there can be no question that the night rider does not hold himself either a ruffian or a felon, however much he may act their parts,—the rather a crusader, fighting against long odds a battle in which victory spells the common good. Unpleasant as a fact, it is as a symptom that he is dangerous. He could not endure for a week if he had not so great a moiety of his people behind him. He lacks wholly official countenance,—again and again the association has disclaimed him. He is not in himself the root of trouble,—only the sign-radical of something much deeper, whose ultimate result is alike beyond foresight or prophecy.

AMERICA'S INTEREST IN THE WORK OF LORD KELVIN.

BY J. F. SPRINGER.

OF all periods of the world's history the nineteenth century stands out as marking the most stupendous advance in science. It is probable, indeed, that the sum total of this progress for the single century is greater than that for all preceding time. During this epoch of tremendous scientific activity many remarkable figures have arisen. But of these none has been more notable than that of the Scotch-Irishman known first as Professor Thomson, then as Sir William Thomson, and lastly as Lord Kelvin. Possessed of a mental mechanism of the first order, which was run at high speed for over a half-century, it is not to be wondered at that he has linked his name with some of the most important scientific advances of all history.

Science has recorded the establishment of no greater principles than those relative to the correlation of energy and the conservation of energy. These fundamental propositions are not to be regarded as inferior to the law of universal gravitation and the principle of the indestructibility of matter. Intimately associated with these two primary principles is the conception of heat as a form of energy. To these may be added a law which may be regarded as somewhat of a corollary of these,—the law of the dissipation of energy. All these reach into the very fiber of science. Nor is it yet evident what will be the ultimate extent of their influence. And with every one of them is closely bound up the name of Lord Kelvin.

All of this is of course a matter of interest to serious Americans. At the same time their interest should find accentuation in the genial and generous personality which was not slow to recognize and commend the struggles and efforts of American genius. Thus, upon his return home after visiting the United States, in 1876, Lord Kelvin voiced in a presidential address to the Mathematical and Physical Section of the British Association the following sentiments:

I came home, indeed, vividly impressed with much that I had seen both in the great exhibition of Philadelphia and out of it, showing the truest scientific spirit and devotion, the originality, the inventiveness, the patient, persevering thoroughness of work, the appreciativeness, the

generous open-mindedness and sympathy, from which the great things of science come. . . .

I wish I could speak to you of the veteran Henry, generous rival of Faraday in electromagnetic discovery; of Peirce, the founder of high mathematics in America; of Bache, and the splendid heritage he has left to America and to the world in the United States Coast Survey; of the great school of astronomers which followed,—Gould, Newton, Newcomb, Watson, Young, Alvan Clark, Rutherford, Draper, (father and son). . . .

These are warm and enthusiastic words, and deserve on the part of Americans a hearty appreciation of the spirit which gave them utterance.

HIS PART IN LAYING THE ATLANTIC CABLE.

Of especial American interest is the intimate connection sustained by Lord Kelvin to one of the greatest efforts of the national spirit of enterprise. The energy and unconquerable perseverance of Cyrus W. Field were of course indispensable factors in the success of the Atlantic telegraph cable. But these would probably have been of no avail if it had not been for the genius of the young professor from Glasgow. As Lord Kelvin was associated with the practical side of this project from the beginning to the completion, a brief résumé will perhaps be of interest.

The cable was to connect Ireland and Newfoundland. Assistance was asked and received both from the British Government and from that of the United States. The fact, however, that the cable was to terminate on this side of the Atlantic in British territory increased the difficulty in securing assistance from Congress. However, both governments participated in the undertaking, and on August 5, 1857, all financial and other preliminaries had been settled, and the actual operation of laying the cable begun. Each government assigned a warship to the duty,—the British ship being the *Agamemnon*, and the American the *Niagara*. Professor Thomson was on board the *Agamemnon* as electric expert. What was known at that time of the behavior and management of electric currents was small indeed. In fact, scientific advance in electricity had not really proceeded far enough to justify an engineering project of this magnitude. How-

ever, the difficulties were unrealized as well as the solutions of the problems they would create immediately upon their emergence from the unknown. With the blissfulness of ignorance, then, everybody went ahead. And we justify them because they succeeded. But this 1857 effort did not succeed. In the following year two other attempts were made. The latter was successful. The cable was actually laid and a few messages exchanged. Everybody went wild with enthusiasm, which was destined, however, to be short-lived.

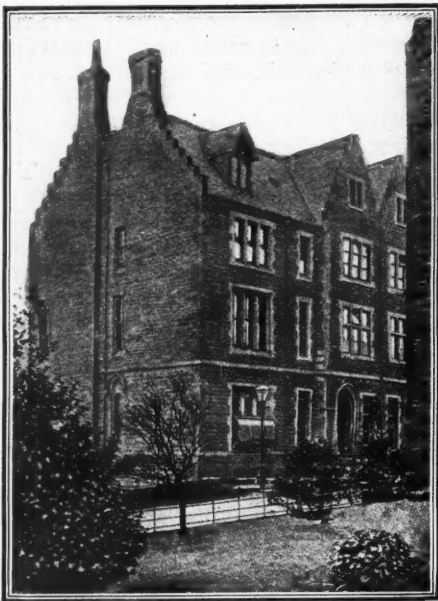
All the messages had been transmitted by means of Professor Thomson's new mirror galvanometer, an instrument of the most refined delicacy. This invention, however, was not the first step taken by Professor Thomson in endeavoring to solve the problem of transmission. The difficulty lay in the fact that the current received enormous resistance,—due, in part, to an induced counter-current,—increasing, as Thomson showed, with the square of the length. This could not be met by simply increasing the power of the current, as that would result in the ruin of the insulation. At first Thomson sought to improve the quality of the copper. The delicate mirror galvanometer was, however, found to be the way out. It consists essentially of a very small magnet attached to a very small mirror and suspended by means of a silk thread or fiber within a coil of fine

copper wire. A beam of light thrown upon this mirror will upon its reflection upon a screen exhibit the slightest oscillations of the magnet. By means of a code arrangement, messages could be signaled by the movement of the spot of light on the screen. But even this excessively sensitive means of communication now failed, and the 1858 cable became a piece of junk at the bottom of the Atlantic.

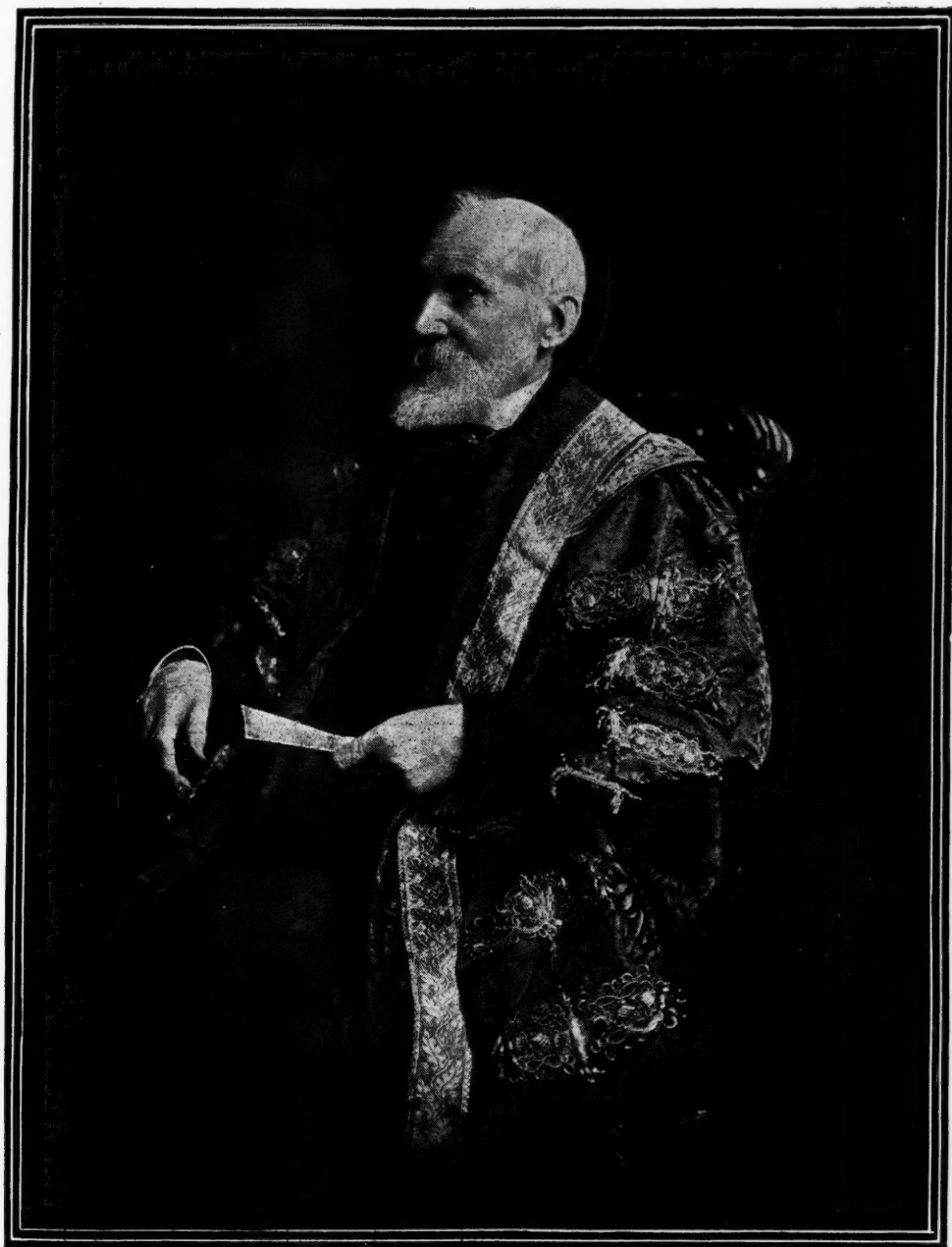
For just what reason failure came is unknown. A tremendous revulsion in popular feeling resulted. It was suggested that the whole proceeding was a "fake," and that no messages had really been transmitted. But real messages had indeed been sent,—as, for instance, an order from London that a certain regiment in Canada should not depart for India, the mutiny being ended. Cyrus Field and William Thomson had faith,—as well as others. So, in 1865, another, but fruitless, attempt was made, followed, however, by a complete success in 1866. In recognition of his splendid services Professor Thomson was knighted in 1866 upon his return to the other side of the Atlantic. In succeeding years Sir William Thomson was connected with other cable enterprises as electrical engineer. In 1867 the obvious defect of the mirror galvanometer, in that it preserved no record of the messages, was overcome by him in his celebrated siphon recorder. The essential features of this are a light coil of wire which is suspended between the poles of a strong magnet, and a fine glass siphon connected with the magnet and discharging a thread of ink on a moving strip of paper. This is an exceedingly delicate instrument, pretty much all friction being eliminated.

INVENTIONS OF SOUNDING APPARATUS.

It can be readily seen from his work in connection with submarine cables that Lord Kelvin was not merely a scientist dealing with the abstract, but a man of great practicality. If further proof of this were needed, it could be furnished by his invention of an improved mariner's compass, which was so practical as to supersede the others in the market, and by his devices for deep-sea sounding. In making deep-water soundings it was a great nuisance to be under the necessity of bringing the ship to a full stop in order to ascertain the depth. By his method soundings may be taken of very considerable depths without causing the vessel to come to a stop. He used piano-wire

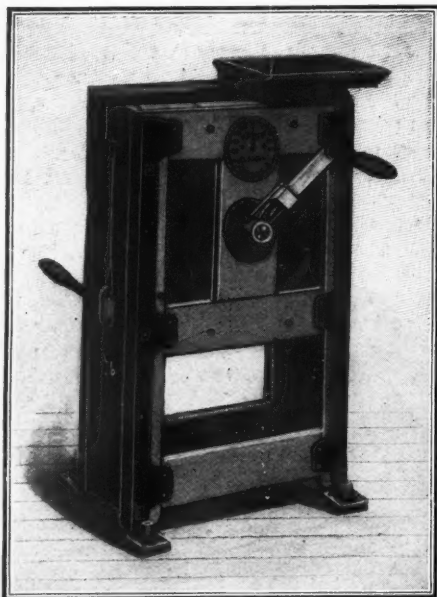


LORD KELVIN'S HOUSE, IN GLASGOW.



LORD KELVIN, FROM A LATE PHOTOGRAPH.

instead of the ordinary sounding-line. This weighed less and presented very little resistance to the water. By the ordinary method it was the work of six men to bring the lead from merely fifty or sixty fathoms with the ship under way, whereas with the piano-wire arrangement a cabin-boy could bring up a thirty-four pound sinker from a depth of 150 fathoms. This wire weighed in water about twelve pounds per 1000



LORD KELVIN'S SOUNDING MACHINE.

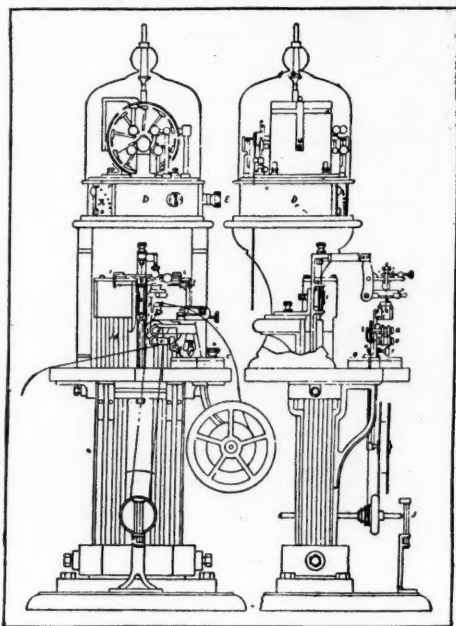
fathoms. By using a brake with the paying-out mechanism and compensating at regular intervals for the increased weight of wire in the sea, the whole could be so managed that the brake exerted constantly about ten pounds more friction than the pull due to the wire in the water, but exclusive of the thirty-four pound sinker. This ten pounds would therefore be exerted against the thirty-four. At the instant that the sinker touched bottom this thirty-four-pound pull would suddenly be discontinued. The effect of the sudden manifestation of the ten-pound unbalanced friction of the brake would give instant notice that the bottom was reached. Thomson also invented an automatic depth recorder. In this device advantage was taken of the fact that the pressure exerted by water varies with the depth, so that a means of recording the pressure at the bottom is in effect a means of recording the depth.

LORD KELVIN AND NIAGARA.

Lord Kelvin's connection with the project for the utilization of Niagara Falls undertaken by the Cataract Construction Company, about 1890, may be mentioned at this point as an instance of his relation to the practical side of American life. This company, finding that the books were not keeping pace with the rapid advances in knowl-

edge concerning the development and transmission of power, deemed it expedient to establish in London an International Niagara Commission, with Lord Kelvin at its head, to pass upon, and award prizes for, power-utilization plans submitted in competition.

With regard to the general proposition which contemplates the utilization of the Falls, Lord Kelvin took up a very advanced position. He was willing to exchange the magnificent spectacle of an immense body of water making a tremendous drop to the gorge below for the picture of the rocks covered with verdure and the 4,000,000 horsepower utilized in promoting the material welfare of mankind. The present power plants use but a small fraction of the entire power, and affect the Falls to an almost, if not quite, inappreciable extent from an æsthetic point of view. But Lord Kelvin did not hesitate to look on to the time when the whole should be swallowed up in the utilitarian purpose. He saw in this something greater and grander than the sight of a beautiful and mighty sheet of water making its wonderful plunge. And in this the future may justify him as one standing on



THE ORIGINAL SIPHON RECORDER, AS INVENTED BY LORD KELVIN, IN 1867.

(This device records as well as receives cable messages.)



Prof. E. Mascart. Prof. W. C. Unwin. Dr. Coleman Sellers.
 Lord Kelvin. Col. Th. Turrettini.
 THE INTERNATIONAL NIAGARA FALLS COMMISSION (1895).

a higher point and enjoying a wider horizon.

AN ACTIVE ACADEMIC CAREER.

The life of Lord Kelvin was full of activity from beginning to end. Born in 1824 and dying in 1907, he spent practically the whole of this long life from his youth onward in serious scientific pursuits. Ireland was the land of his birth, but Scotland early became his home, when his father, in 1832, removed to Glasgow to become professor of mathematics at the university. In 1834 young William was a regular matriculated student. During the four years, 1841-1845, he studied at St. Peter's College, Cambridge, becoming second wrangler and Smith prizeman upon graduation. It is not quite clear why he did not obtain the first wranglership, as one of the examiners is understood to have thought that no comparison existed between the two successful contestants, and this judgment would seem to have been justified by time. While at Cambridge he became the first editor of the *Cambridge*

and Dublin Mathematical Journal. In 1846 he took the chair of natural philosophy at his *alma mater* in Glasgow. In this position he continued for fifty-three years, never having occupied any other professorial chair. In the case of a man of his attainments and celebrity this may be regarded as indicative of his devotion to his own university. The professor of natural philosophy in those days did not have available the splendid equipments that are so common to-day. In fact, there existed, apparently, nowhere in the world a physical laboratory for students. But Thomson established one in an old wine-cellar. Enthusiasm, intelligence, industry, —all were his in marked degrees.

He was twice married,—first to Miss Crum, in 1852, who died eighteen years later. In 1874 he married Miss Blandv, who survives him.

In 1866, as already noted, he was knighted. In 1892 he was made the first Baron Kelvin of Netherhall, Largs. His coat-of-arms indicates descent from a Scottish family. He was elected president of the

Royal Society of London in 1891, and continued in this office until 1896. In this latter year occurred the jubilee of his professorship. Honors were showered upon him from every direction. That he was not exalted in his own self-esteem may be gathered from the following words uttered by him upon this occasion: "One word, one word characterizes the most strenuous of the efforts for the advancement of science that I have made perseveringly during fifty-five years,—that word is FAILURE! I know no more of electric and magnetic force, or of the relation between ether, electricity, and ponderable matter, or of chemical affinity, than I knew and tried to teach my students of natural philosophy fifty years ago, in my first session as professor. Something of sadness must come of failure; but in the pursuit of science, inborn necessity to make the effort brings with it much of the *certaminis gaudia*, and saves the naturalist from being wholly miserable, perhaps even allows him to be fairly happy in his daily work."

His name is associated with Professor Tait in dynamics; with Mayer and Helmholtz in the dynamical theory of gases; with Joule, Clausius, and Rankine in the development of the theory of heat; and with Faraday, Maxwell, and Hertz in the theory of electricity. It is perhaps not wise to attempt to state his rank with the last degree of precision. It seems pretty clear, however, that no name in the science of the nineteenth century will stand higher in point of high achievement.

His writings include books, papers and addresses before learned societies, and contributions to scientific periodicals. Thus, he was joint author with Professor Tait in two volumes of mathematical physics,—a "Treatise on Natural Philosophy." There are three volumes of his "Popular Lectures and Addresses." A number of articles found republication in collected form (1872) under the title "Papers on Electrostatics and Magnetism."

He was scarcely a controversialist. Yet in the '60's he became engaged in a great controversy over certain doctrines held by many geologists and biologists. He demanded of the uniformitarian school of geologists in an address before the Geological Society of Glasgow (1868) that they

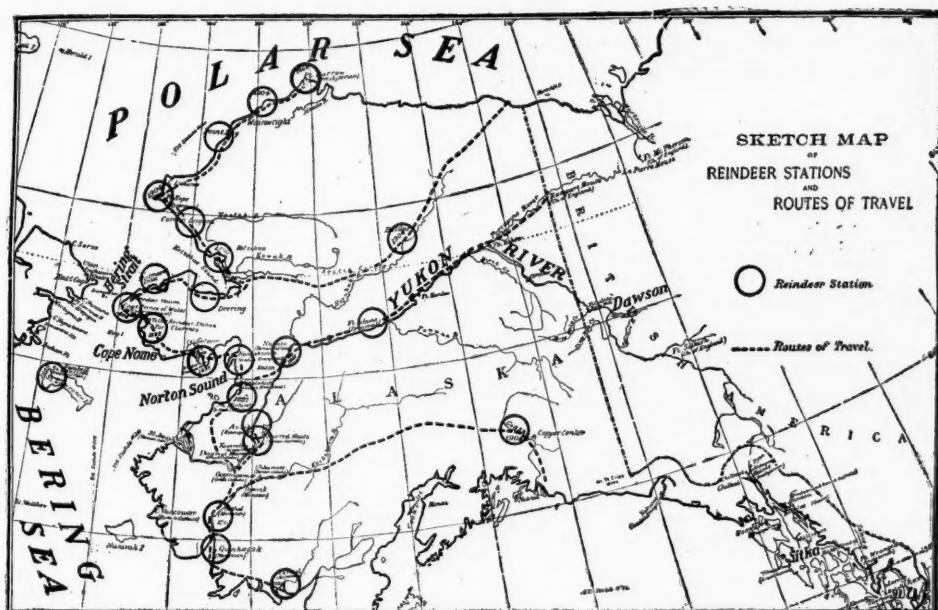
reform their conceptions of the length of time the earth has been adapted to support life. This demand affected the biologists as well,—especially those who held the Darwinian hypothesis of the origin of species by natural selection. Professor Huxley attempted a reply, but the arguments of Thomson that, within a not unlimited time, the earth has been too hot to support life, and the sun has not afforded it illumination, were apparently unanswerable.

The organization of the Johns Hopkins University in the '70's attracted much attention in Europe among men of educational prominence. This was no doubt due to the fact that it was the first great effort in this country to make adequate provision for post-graduate instruction. In fact, Professor Sylvester, one of the greatest of the mathematicians of the last century, came over to Baltimore to accept the chair of mathematics. Professor Cayley, another of the world's great mathematicians, came over to lecture. So also did Lord Kelvin. This was in 1884, when he was still Sir William Thomson. These lectures, twenty in number, constitute an application of molecular dynamics to the wave theory of light. They were delivered, not to an ordinary post-graduate class, but to a body of physicists, many being themselves teachers.

Lord Kelvin affirmed in most unequivocal terms at University College in 1903, not merely a personal religious belief in creative intelligence, but his conviction that science itself compels the admission of a creative and directive power in addition to physical, dynamical, and electrical forces.

Lord Kelvin's life affords an almost unparalleled example of the possibility of the combination of abstract ability of the highest order with severe practicality. This should commend itself to the American spirit which certainly has but little patience with the theorizing attitude that is unable or unwilling to put itself to the test of the concrete. Americans will do well, then, to take to heart the American practicalness of one who could be at once a theoretical mathematical physicist and a field engineer.

Lord Kelvin died on December 17 last, and was buried on December 23 in Westminster Abbey.



ALASKA'S SYSTEM OF REINDEER STATIONS.
(Circles indicate the stations, and broken lines routes of travel.)

THE AWAKENING OF THE ALASKAN.

BY WILLIAM ATHERTON DU PUY.

THREE thousand native children of Alaska, shut in by eternal snows, saddened by the darkness of nights months long, narrowed by the isolation of centuries, but withal abounding in sturdy, tenacious resourcefulness developed by the hardships the race has faced, are this winter being given the benefit of modern public schools such as are maintained in other portions of the United States.

Seventy American teachers are scattered here and there through Alaska's vast expanses, dotting the sweep of the Arctic beyond Bering Straits, weeks' journeys up the Yukon and its tributaries even in the brief open season, or 1000 miles from the mainland where the Aleutian Islands lead out toward Asia. Each of these teachers is the center of a new civilization; for the Eskimo or his kindred native seizes hungrily upon the germ of learning and receives its dispenser with open arms.

These schools are maintained under the Alaskan division of the United States Bureau of Education, with headquarters in Washington, D. C. They are distinctly separate from the public schools in Alaska that are

maintained for white children, these latter being in direct charge of the local authorities, while the burden of the former is borne exclusively by the national Government and controlled from the capital. The education of the native began twenty years ago, but the segregation of the schools and their placing on a basis by themselves took place but two years ago.

Since that segregation the tendency of Congress has been to show the greatest liberality toward the native Alaskans. The appropriation last year was \$200,000, or double that of the previous year. This additional money has placed the service on an operating basis that has made it possible to establish schools in all the principal villages and carry civilization to the mass of the people.

The position occupied by this handful of white teachers in this great waste country and the influence upon the simple people is one without a parallel in the history of the world. At the same time, the sacrifices that they voluntarily make and the dangers they go through are such as can only be explained by attributing them to missionary zeal or pos-



THE "THETIS" OFTEN RUNS HER NOSE INTO AN ICE FLOE IN THE ARCTIC.

sibly to the first love of the Anglo-Saxon which is here realized in the battle against the elements.

The maintenance of the native schools that lie along the North Pacific Ocean can hardly be styled a part of the real battle that is being waged to uplift the Alaskan, for here there are Americans in practically all the settlements, and the climate offers few of the monstrous discouragements it does in the interior or on the Arctic. The schools on the Aleutian Islands, which separate the Bering Sea from the North Pacific, are far out in the frozen waters, upon bare rocks removed from the line of communication with the outside world, inhabited only by the Aleuts, a hybrid Mongolian race. The most fertile field is that which extends north and south from Cape Prince of Wales, which point approaches most nearly to Asia. These people are Eskimos and are settled in villages of considerable size to the south as far as Bristol Bay and to the north 500 miles to Point Barrow, the northernmost tip of land owned by the United States. Leaving the coast, the great interior is populated, and can be reached in midsummer by following the rivers, and at other times only by toilsome trips with dog-sleds.

In the region bordering the Bering Sea and the Arctic Ocean the temperature averages some forty degrees below zero in the winter time, while in the valley of the Yukon and its tributaries it falls as low as

seventy-eight degrees below. To these temperatures is added the darkness of the Arctic winter and the endless expanse of ice and snow. The isolation is absolute. Each summer the Government revenue cutter *Thetis* makes its Arctic cruise as far as Point Barrow, carries the Government mail, and extends courtesies to the school service whenever occasion allows. The trip is in no respect certain, as may be shown by the experience of last summer when the *Thetis* broke her rudder in the ice 100 miles short of her destination, and was forced to turn back.

A teacher for the Point Barrow school was on board bound for his post. He had been but recently married, and his bride accompanied him on this unusual honeymoon. With her broken rudder the revenue cutter prepared to put into a remote landing at Icy Point and there disembark the teacher and his effects, leaving him the chance of getting to his post by dog team. By a mere chance, however, a supply schooner was encountered going north and the teacher and his bride were transferred to this craft for the remainder of the trip. When the mails come out next spring it will be known whether or not they reached their destination in safety.

In addition to the uncertain annual visit of the *Thetis*, two mails annually are started to the settlements along the Arctic Coast north of Kotzebue Sound. These carry only letters, and the time of reaching their destination is uncertain. To the interior points there is the dog-team communication and the boat up the river in the summer. The island schools are entirely isolated except during the summer season.

Yet the teachers of many of these Alaskan schools are young women who have been carefully reared among refining influences. An additional goodly number are graduates of the best colleges in the country and men who could demonstrate their ability in any surroundings. All are carefully selected from hundreds of applicants, and none are chosen, except in cases of unusual emergencies, who have not had previous experience in teaching. There are always large numbers of applications on file at the Bureau of Education for these difficult posts, and the highest grade of material is selected. The result is a body of teachers of most unusual abilities and character; for the work would not appeal to a person of commonplace temperament and ambition.



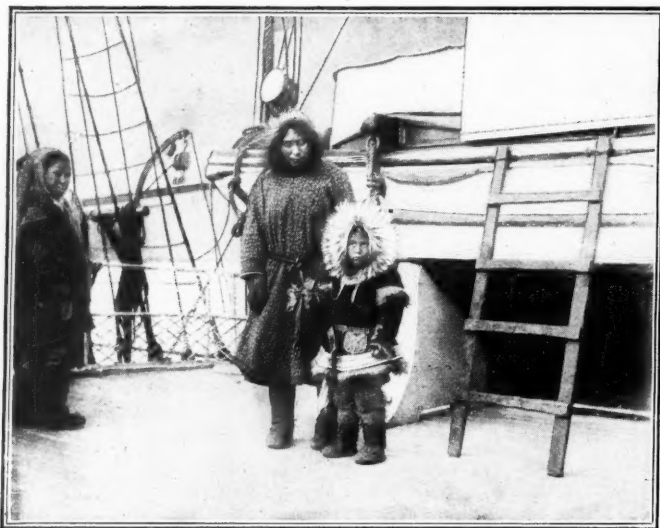
WITH A FEW MONTHS' TRAINING THE PUPILS AT WORK DO NOT SEEM UNSOPHISTICATED.

It is upon these seventy individuals that the mental, moral, and social future of a race of people inhabiting a whole corner of the world is to be patterned. The reward of the teachers for all the sacrifices made and dangers encountered, particularly in the remote districts, rests in the fact that the influence over the given following is absolute and unlimited. In them is vested an undisputed power for good.

When a public school is founded in a native village it immediately becomes the center of the life of that village. Not only are the children taught the rudiments of an education, but their elders are taught the principles of civilized living. The whole population is given examples as to its relations to society through the daily life of the teacher and through entertainments and social gatherings especially arranged to carry home the desired lesson. In no civilization and under no condition of life were there ever more favorable conditions for the dissemination of learning than among these northern natives; for they are forced into inaction for the greater part of the year by the long, dark winter, have abundant time upon their hands, and any breaking of the monotony is welcomed as a godsend.

When the first school was opened at Cape Prince of Wales the seating room was limited. The Eskimos crowded in until the building was packed to suffocation. The teacher was enthusiastic over making the most of his opportunity, and so arranged to work extra time and to have a morning and afternoon session for different pupils. Both sessions were so enthusiastically attended that careful watch had to be maintained while the lines filed in through the snow trenches to prevent the pupils who had attended in the morning from getting in for the afternoon period. It was thought that this enthusiasm would die out when the novelty wore off, but such has not been found to be the case, and the attendance is continuously good throughout the schools.

In the native villages it is but natural that the teacher of the school should organize Sunday-schools, to which the whole community comes. In this way he reaches the older people and readily becomes the wise man of the community, replacing the medicine man as the general counselor. There is nothing of antagonism shown toward the introduction of the new education, and strong affections are quickly developed for the teachers by the natives.



IN THE HEIGHT OF FASHION 10,000 MILES FROM BROADWAY.

An example of this affection was shown one summer when the revenue cutter touched at Wainright in the Arctic. There had been a plan on foot to transfer the teacher at that place to another school, but with the coming of the revenue cutter the information was brought that he was to remain. The scene of joy that the announcement called forth was so hearty that the teacher escaped exhausted from the hugging administered by the whole population.

A stronger demonstration of affection for the white teacher even when brought in conflict with the native was given in connection

the whole village turned out, ran the murderers down, and publicly executed them, calling upon the teacher's widow to witness the vengeance.

Officials of the Bureau of Education at Washington who have been most among the Alaskans and know them best are most enthusiastic over the possibilities in these northern races. They hold them to be far superior to the American Indian in intellect and character, and capable of a higher and more ready civilization.

There are a number of distinct races in Alaska,—contrary to the current acceptance

with the single tragedy in the history of the school service, it resulting in the death of H. R. Thornton, teacher at Cape Prince of Wales in 1893. An undesirable young Eskimo had been expelled from the school, and, enlisting a friend in his cause, returned to the residence of the teacher at midnight, called him to the door, and shot him through with a whaling gun, the weapon used in the whaling boats for shooting the harpoon into the monster fish. Immediately upon learning of the tragedy



THE UNITED STATES PUBLIC SCHOOL BUILDING, PLANTED IN A REMOTE NATIVE VILLAGE OF ALASKA.



UPPER CLASSMEN IN THE MORE ADVANCED SCHOOLS OF ST. MICHAELS.

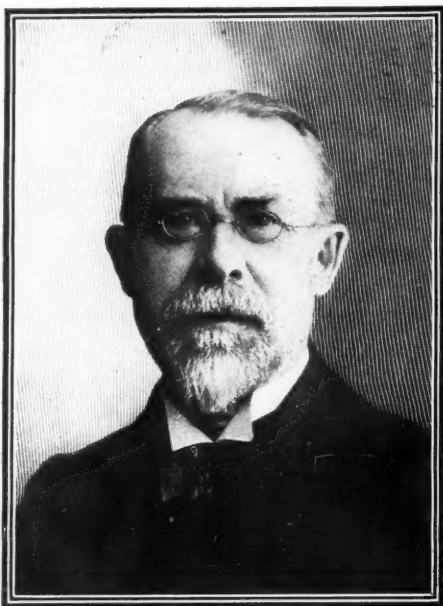
of the Eskimo as the sole representative of the peninsula. The Eskimos are, however, the strongest in number and give indications of superior traits to any of the others. They are self-reliant and hardy because of their long battle for existence in an unfavorable land. They are sharp and intelligent traders, as is shown by the bargains that they push in trading with the whalers who frequent the villages. They are showing themselves capable of readily taking an education, and their artistic natures are evidenced by the native carving of ivories.

The Aleuts, living on the Aleutian Islands over toward Asia, are of an entirely different class, and are the most unpromising of the Alaskan natives. At the time that the Colonies were fighting for independence from England the Russians were seizing these islands. For two centuries they kept control, and the history of this period is that of one repetition after another of horrible atrocities upon the natives. The result is a cringing, broken race that will need time to revive. The Athabascans are the residents of the valleys of the Yukon and its tributaries. They are more nearly related to the North American Indian than are any of the others, but have a touch of the Mongolian.

These are fewer in number than are any of the other tribes. The Tlingets, in southeastern Alaska, have been longer in contact with the whites, dress as they do, and are packers, miners, and rough workmen. In all there are about 35,000 natives, children and adults, most of whom have felt to a greater or less extent the influence of the United States public schools.

With the additional funds in the hands of the Commissioner of Education during the past year the work of establishing schools has gone forward with greater strides than ever before. Of the sum appropriated, \$100,000 was to be used in the establishment of new schools. Ten new school buildings are being completed this winter, and the field is being more thoroughly investigated to find where others are most needed.

The building of these schools is often fraught with much difficulty, as may be shown by the example of Diamedes Island, upon which a lone teacher is this winter isolated in his attempt to put up a building. These islands are in the middle of Bering Straits, the larger on the Russian side of the boundary line and the smaller on the American side. This smaller island is a barren and precipitous rock, rising like a fortress



DR. SHELDON JACKSON.

(United States General Agent of Education in Alaska.)

from the icy waters and accessible at but one point of its shoreline. In the fall of 1907 a schooner was dispatched to this point with R. W. Thompson, who was to be the teacher, with lumber from Seattle from which to build a schoolhouse, and with sup-

plies for the winter. Upon arrival a portion of the supplies and cargo was unloaded and a small amount of lumber, when heavy gales forced the boat to put to sea. At last report she had not yet succeeded in returning to unload the balance of her cargo, but the ambitious teacher succeeded in getting out a letter saying that he had built a shack of the lumber in hand, was at home for the winter, and intended starting his school in the face of the adverse circumstances. This case is typical of many such attempts, it being the rule rather than the exception for the teacher to be placed alone in some village to work out his own problems.

Franklin Moses, representing the Bureau of Education, in the summer of 1906 penetrated 1000 miles inland, where he supervised the erection of school buildings at Stevens Camp, Rampart, and Kokrimes on the Yukon, and at Nenana on the Tanana River. These schools and many more in various sections are being pushed to completion as rapidly as the climate and difficulty of getting the material to the points of building will allow. All materials were selected in Seattle and shipped 3000 or 4000 miles to the points of use. Here are erected comfortable buildings such as form the centers of communities in "God's country," and here is planted the strong seed of civilization in the virgin soil with the intention and hope of a fruition as broad as the snow-stretches of the land's wildernesses.



THE WINTER MAILS GO BY DOG TRAIN, AND MAY OR MAY NOT ARRIVE TWICE IN A SEASON.

GEORGE MEREDITH AT EIGHTY.

BY G. W. HARRIS.

"THE master of us all, George Meredith," said Mrs. Humphry Ward a year or two ago in a public address. Yet this was only one more tribute of the kind his fellow-writers have long delighted to bestow upon the man who to-day more than any other living author dominates the world of English letters. For more than forty years they have vied with one another, and against obstreperous decrying criticism, in singing his praises; Robert Browning, A. C. Swinburne, John Morley, Justin McCarthy, Robert Louis Stevenson, William Ernest Henley, J. M. Barrie, Henry James, Richard Le Gallienne,—a page of this magazine might be filled with the names of the poets, novelists, essayists of the latter half of the nineteenth century who have recognized and heralded Mr. George Meredith as a master craftsman in literature. So universal among his contemporaries was the high regard in which he was held that when Lord Tennyson died in 1892 Mr. Meredith was chosen without a dissenting voice to succeed him as president of the Society of English Authors.

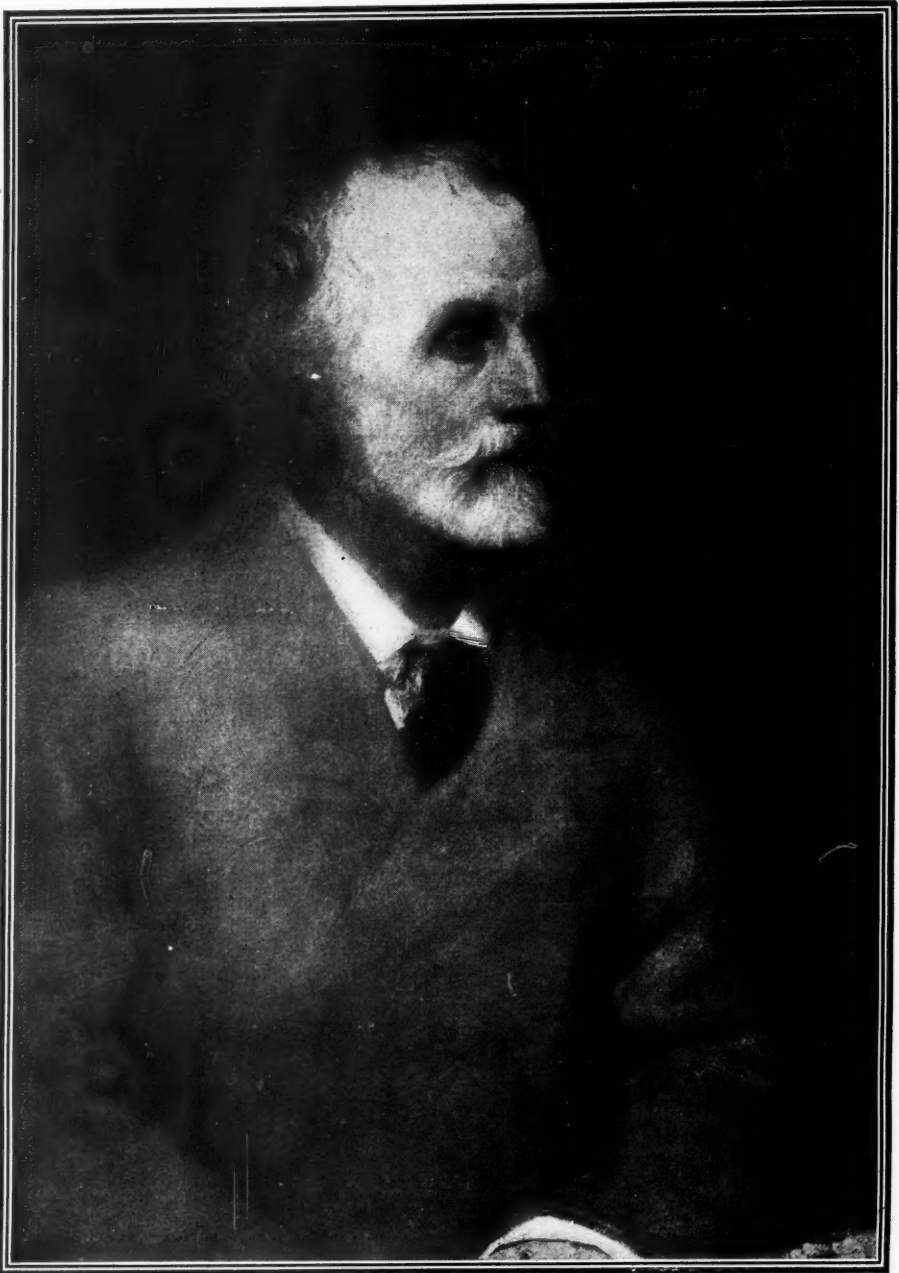
Popular appreciation of this writer has been a thing of much slower growth. Although his first novel, "The Ordeal of Richard Fernald," published in 1859, evoked enthusiasm in some quarters,—the *London Times* praising it at once,—and French and Italian translations of it were soon published, nearly twenty years passed before it reached its second English edition. And for many years his other books fared no better. Justin McCarthy, in his "History of Our Own Times," said: "Distinguished, peculiar, and lonely is the place in fiction held by Mr. George Meredith." In America his earlier writings were hardly known at all; not until his tenth novel, "Diana of the Crossways," in 1885 had opened the door to a larger audience, were they much read. But since that time, in this country as well as in England, Mr. Meredith's work has been steadily gaining in popular favor. Two years ago his American publishers found it profitable to put out a "pocket edition" of his complete writings,—the third American issue of his works. Several pirated editions of some of his novels, notably "Diana of the Crossways," have sold thousands of copies. That

the American public is reading him in ever-increasing numbers is attested by the librarians of the big public libraries, who tell one of haying to replenish their stock of Mr. Meredith's books, or to add more copies, every five or six years.

I.

George Meredith has published about twenty-five books, prose and verse, and has taken such a grip on the life of his time as few authors of any age have been able to do. Not to know this man's work is to confess one's self deaf to one of the most eloquent voices of modern literature,—and more, to deprive one's self of a great store of mental pleasure of a rare kind.

Available facts for a biography of the man are meager. He has never sought, or been willing to permit, personal publicity. "The best of me is in my books," he said to one inquirer. Though of Welsh and Irish blood, he was born in Hampshire, England, on February 12, 1828. Both his parents died when he was a small child, leaving him to be educated as a ward in chancery. Little has been told about those parents. Mrs. M. R. F. Gilman, who in 1888 prepared a volume of selections from Mr. Meredith called "The Pilgrim's Scrip," and who therein collected more data about his life than any other, says that "the blood of working ancestors flows in Meredith's veins, and perhaps this accounts for the sympathetic insight with which many of his homely characters are drawn." He received his early education in Germany, where he remained until he was fifteen years old. Then his guardian recalled him to England and set him to studying the law. This never appealed to his tastes, however, and as soon as he became his own master he abandoned it for journalism and literature. He soon found that he had chosen a difficult course. His life in London for many years, says Mrs. Gilman, was a hand-to-hand struggle with poverty in its harshest forms. He was hampered with a load of debts of others' making. For a whole year he lived on a diet of oatmeal. In 1866 he went to the Austro-Italian war as a correspondent for the *London Morning Post*. That experience gave him material for his novel "Vittoria." Most of his



From the Painting by George Frederick Watts.

GEORGE MEREDITH.

life since then has been passed in his cottage, was a daughter of Thomas Love Peacock, home at Box-Hill in Surrey, where he has author of "Headlong Hall," "Melincourt," lived and worked in "contented poverty." "Maid Marian," and other novels. They He has been twice married. His first wife had one son. Mr. Meredith's second wife

died in 1886, leaving a son and a daughter.

Mr. Meredith's first book was a volume of poems, published in 1851 and dedicated to Thomas Love Peacock. It did not cause any great stir in the literary world, and he seems to have abandoned verse for a time thereafter, for it was eleven years before his second poetical offering to the world appeared. But he had been busy indeed in the field of fiction. In 1856 he published "The Shaving of Shagpat: An Arabian Entertainment," a strange Oriental extravaganza filled with an exuberant fancy, and the most successful of modern attempts at simulating the Eastern imagination. In 1857 appeared "Farina," a graceful little love tale of mediæval Cologne. The real beginning of Mr. Meredith's career as a novelist, however, was the publication of "The Ordeal of Richard Fernal: A History of a Father and Son," in 1859. Here was a book which showed that a new master had entered the field of English fiction. It disclosed a mature mind and a practiced hand. Its author had arrived. It was the most powerful and at the same time the most artistic English novel of its generation,—and there were some great novels written in that generation. To-day it is as fresh and as fascinating as when it first appeared. The reader who comes upon it for the first time now can hardly believe that "Richard Fernal" was published in the same year that brought from the presses Thackeray's "Virginians," and Dickens' "Tale of Two Cities," and George Eliot's "Adam Bede."

In 1861 Mr. Meredith published "Evan Harrington," his second novel, which is in every phase of it a remarkable contrast to "The Ordeal of Richard Fernal." The printing of "Modern Love and Other Poems" in 1862 signaled an author as original and remarkable as a poet as he had already shown himself to be as a novelist, and called forth encomiums from Browning and Swinburne, though the critics of that day abused him unconscionably. His third novel, "Emilia in England," appeared in 1864. He afterward changed its title to "Sandra Belloni" (from the name of its heroine: Emilia Alessandra Belloni). This was followed by "Rhoda Fleming" in 1865; "Vittoria" (a sequel to "Sandra Belloni") in 1867; "The Adventures of Harry Richmond" in 1871; "Beauchamp's Career" in 1876; "The Egoist" in 1879; "The Tragic Comedians" in 1880. A third volume of verse, "Poems and Lyrics of the Joy of Earth," came in

1883; the novel "Diana of the Crossways" in 1885; "Ballads and Poems of Tragic Life" in 1887; "A Reading of Earth," more poems, in 1888; "One of Our Conquerors" in 1890; "Lord Ormont and His Aminta" in 1894, and "The Amazing Marriage," last of the novels, in 1895.

In 1895 also were gathered into one volume three novelettes: "The Tale of Chloe," "The House on the Beach," and "The Case of General Ople and Lady Camper," which originally had appeared in the *New Quarterly Magazine* in 1877 and 1879, and had been published serially by the *New York Sun* in 1890. In 1897 was published in a thin little duodecimo "An Essay on Comedy and the Uses of the Comic Spirit," a lecture delivered at the London Institution twenty years before and first printed in the *New Quarterly Magazine* for April, 1877. "Odes in Contribution to the Song of French History" appeared in 1898, and "A Reading of Life, with Other Poems," in 1901.

II.

In all this mass of work, prose and verse, George Meredith has always subordinated mere story-telling, for the story's or the telling's sake, to the study and depiction of the development of character. The soul-life is for him the only life. The task he set himself, and which he has wonderfully accomplished, was "to write with a sense of responsibility, to aim at presentation of character rather than at story-telling, to regard an accurate psychology as morally obligatory, to satirize folly, and to present exemplars of intelligent culture to appeal for approval to the intellect." Intellect he has regarded as the chief endowment of man; and he has worked and wrought steadily toward the development of man's understanding.

Yet he has had good stories and strong stories to tell. His novels, with few exceptions, are not only interesting, but fascinating. They compel the reader's attention and they hold it as in a giant's grasp. He can pen you the most delightfully, deliciously charming idyl of first love, and follow it with a tragedy as poignant as any of Shakespeare's own. He will take you on the wildest flight of fancy into undiscovered regions made alive by his teeming imagination and filled with tropically luxuriant growths of men and manners, of things animate and inanimate. He will paint you the life of his England in a bygone age or in the present year of grace.

He will spin you the most amazing and amusing yarn of adventure by land and sea, and through it all make you acquainted with characters that are true and real and convincing. His versatility is that of a master of life as well as of art.

Of Death, of Life, those inwound notes are mine,

he sings. He has the great gift of tragedy; and as a creator of comedy he is worthy to rank with his own belauded masters of the Comic Spirit: Aristophanes, Shakespeare, Cervantes, Molière. One novel, "The Adventures of Harry Richmond," alone is sufficient to prove him dowered above his contemporaries with the art of narrative.

He has given to the world of readers more characters than any other novelist of his generation,—characters grave and gay, witty and stupid, learned and unlettered, wise and foolish, high and low, rich and poor, aristocratic and democratic, good and evil, beautiful and ugly, charming and disgusting, heroic and cowardly, noble and ignoble. Whether his story is tragic or comic or melodramatic, whether his plot is good, bad or indifferent, his people (that is the best of them, for he has had his failures of course)

live and move and have a being as real for the reader as any personages in history. "In the world of man's creation," said the late William Ernest Henley, "his people are citizens to match the noblest; they are of the aristocracy of the imagination, the peers in their own right of the society of romance." And because these characters are so real, because they are living, breathing, thinking human beings like ourselves, their conduct becomes of absorbing interest. The Meredith novels are pre-eminent for their dramatic qualities. One marvels that none of them has ever been adapted for the stage. What a delicious comedy "Evan Harrington" would make on the boards! What a fine moving play could be fashioned from "Diana of the Crossways!" There is not one in the long list of the novels that has not an abundance of stirring scenes and effective situations and scores of brilliant dialogues and witty conversations ready made to the adapter's hand. In this day of the dramatized novel it is curious indeed that such a mine of golden riches has remained so long unworked, if not undiscovered.

Mr. J. M. Barrie has called Mr. Meredith the greatest wit England has produced. Certainly he is the wittiest Englishman since



MR. MEREDITH'S SWISS CHALET, AT BOX HILL, WHERE HE DOES HIS WORK.

Shakespeare. And he is the greatest satirist of his time. He has humor, and his humor can be playful, or shrewd, or rollicking, or tender, or fantastic, or subtle, at will. But wit is the meat of him; satire is his daily bread. He is a demolisher of shams, a sworn foe to false pride, false creeds, false sentiment. The egoist, the dogmatist, the dilettante, he lashes mercilessly, not once, but time and time again.

He does this in a style that is a constant marvel of successful adaptation to the purpose in view. It is a wonderful thing that prose style of his, and a fearful. It has made his bitterest enemies and some of his staunchest friends. It is a pitfall and a despair to his imitators, a source of unbounded glee to his critics, a stumbling block to all lazy, languid, or lackwit readers. It has been not inaptly characterized by his own description of Carlyle's style:

* A wind in the orchard style, that tumbled down here and there an appreciable fruit with uncouth bluster; sentences without commencement running to abrupt endings and smoke, like waves against a sea-wall, learned dictionary words giving a hand to street slang. All the pages in a breeze, the whole book producing a kind of electrical agitation in the mind and the joints.

It is all that and more. It is an aristocratic style with democratic sympathies. This style is above all things picturesque, vivid, imaginative. Mr. Meredith tears old phrases to tatters and casts his thought in new molds. His hatred of the commonplace is equaled only by his intolerance of shams. He thinks over his words, and he puts new life into English prose. He must have the largest vocabulary possessed by any living Englishmen; yet he does not hesitate to coin new words when he needs them for a new use or some subtle shade of meaning. He is an inveterate phrase hunter, but an eminently successful one. He is the foremost epigrammatist who ever wrote in English,—the only one, really, who has constantly cut and polished his gems with that lapidarian care emulated of the great literary craftsmen of France. And he has been singularly happy, for the most part, in escaping the snare that lurks for the maker of maxims,—the uttering of half-truths for whole ones. It is a true humility that saves him. His knowledge of the world's literature is as vast and as intimate as his understanding of human nature. Of Sir Austin Fernald, the great aphorist of his own creation, he said:

"Our new thoughts have thrilled dead bosoms," he wrote; by which avowal it may be seen that youth had manifestly gone from him, since he had ceased to be jealous of the ancients.

And again he makes Sir Austin say:

"A maker of Proverbs,—what is he but a narrow mind with the mouthpiece of a narrower? . . . Consider the sort of minds influenced by set sayings. A Proverb is the half-way house to an Idea, I conceive, and the majority rest there content; can the keeper of such a house be flattered by his company?"

Some of Mr. Meredith's epigrams are merely clever, brilliantly clever always, others are packed with the wisdom of the ages. As a small sample, however inadequate, of his quality, take these few gleaned at random from a half dozen of the novels:

Who rises from prayer a better man, his prayer is answered.

Which is the coward among us? *He who sneers at the failings of humanity.*

A mercurial temperament makes quicksilver of any amount of cash.

When love is hurt it is self-love that requires the opiate.

It is the soul which does things in life,—the rest is vapor.

An opinion formed by a woman is inflexible; the fact is not half so stubborn.

Cynicism is intellectual dandyism without the coxcomb's feathers.

To have the sense of the eternal in life is a short flight for the soul. To have had it is the soul's vitality.

Brains will beat Grim Death, if we have enough of them.

Otherwise than merely on his aphorisms Mr. Meredith has ever been a fastidious worker, filing and revising time and again, going over his volumes with emendatory pencil even after years of publication. His severest critics admit that, whatever his faults, he is a great artist, possessed of both power and charm, whose work is always artistic.

III.

While his novels, partly because of the author's peculiarities of style, equally because he demands that the reader shall bring an open and an active mind to his reading ("Ideas," he says, "new-born and naked original ideas, are acceptable at no time to the humanity they visit to help to uplift it from the state of the beast") long remained as "caviare to the general," Mr. Meredith's poems have been for a still smaller audience. This fact is easily explained. In a materialistic age the lovers of poetry form an almost infinitesimal minority in the great republic

of readers. And more than this: while Mr. Meredith's verse has the rugged strength of his prose, and even oftentimes the wit, one is tempted to say that the bulk of it lacks something of the grace of that wonderful prose. For the most part he is the seer rather than the sensuous poet. He is a dramatic prophet. He has admitted the charge of a "pitch" in his comedies "considerably above our common human," justifying it by his tenet that "all right use of life and the one secret of life is to pave the ways for the firmer footing of those who succeed us." This is exemplified in his poems also. He is a philosophical poet: philosopher first, poet afterward. But, having said this, one must hasten to add that he is a poet,—he has inspiration and his inspiration is genuine. The Divine Fire is in his keeping.

From what has already been said it may be gathered that according to Mr. Meredith's idea the chief function of poetry is to teach, rather than to give pleasure. The poet's business is to see and reveal. Whether the revelation is pleasing or displeasing to his contemporaries need not much concern the poet. According as the revelation is true (faithful to the vision) and complete, will it be beautiful,—yea, though its fierce new beauty blind alien eyes. That much of Mr. Meredith's poetry does blind alien eyes there is no denying. Yet we must take his earnest for it that the revealment of his vision is as nearly complete as his powers could make it. Concerning his style in prose he once said: "Thought is tough, and dealing with thought produces toughness. Or when strong emotion is in tide against the active mind, there is perforce confusion." That remarkable sonnet, "The Promise in Disturbance," which stands as the proem to the volume of his collected poetry, contains a subtle characterization of his work in verse. He bids us, bewildered by the jangled music of the words,

But listen in the thought; so may there come
Conception of a newly-added chord,
Commanding space beyond where ear has home.
In labor of the trouble at its fount,
Leads Life to an intelligible Lord
The rebel discords up the sacred mount.

Yet he can be as musical as the most melodious, and as simple, when so minded. Many of his lyrics are compacted of pure melody, hauntingly sweet; and among longer poems "Love in the Valley," "Melampus," "Seed-Time," and the masterly "Hymn to Color," to name no more, are filled with a music that

is not too new to be intelligible to any lover of good verse. Simply and delightfully musical are also those three little masterpieces of genre-painting, "Juggling Jerry," "The Old Chartist," and "Martin's Puzzle," in which Mr. Meredith has dealt with the humblest rural life as feelingly as any English poet.

This poet's best-loved themes, as he has indicated repeatedly by the titles of his poetry-books, are *Tragic Life* and the *Joy of Earth*—he delves into the primal emotions of the human heart; and he knows nature intimately and loves her deeply. "Modern Love," that splendid half-century of sixteen-lined sonnets, is the heart-breaking tragedy of a mismatched husband and wife,

" . . . two rapid falcons in a snare,
Condemned to do the flitting of the bat,"

for whom, though each is solaced by another, there is no comfort.

The wrong is mixed. In tragic life, God wot,
No villain need be. Passions spin the plot:
We are betrayed by what is false within.

Like his own good physician Melampus,
With love exceeding the simple love of the things
That glide in grasses and rubble of woody wreck,

Mr. Meredith, loving them all, walks among nature's creatures "as a scholar who reads a book." He loves the open meadow, the enchanted woods, the glow of dawn, the "dark eye-lashed twilight," the sunlight, the moonlight, the winter stars, the "day of the cloud in fleets," and the rain,—"the glad refresher of the grain." Nature's every mood is known to him. His "Lark Ascending" is as living (and as tuneful) a bird as any in English lyric, which "all little birds that are" fill "with their sweet jargoning":

He rises and begins to round,
He drops the silver chain of sound,
Of many links without a break,
In chirrup, whistle, slur and shake,
All interwoven and spreading wide,
Like water-dimples down a tide
Where ripple ripple overcurls,
And eddy into eddy whirls.

The starting point of Mr. Meredith's nature creed is found in that incisive sonnet of independence, "My Theme":

I say but that this love of Earth reveals
A soul beside our own to quicken, quell,
Irradiate, and through ruinous floods uplift.

It culminates in the teaching of "Earth's Secret":

Not solitarily in fields we find
Earth's secret open, though one page is there;
Her plainest, such as children spell, and share
With bird and beast; raised letters for the blind.
Not where the troubled passions toss the mind,
In turbid cities, can the key be bare.
It hangs for those who hither thither fare,
Close interthreading nature with our kind.
They, hearing History speak, of what men were,
And have become, are wise. The gain is great
In vision and solidity; it lives.
Yet at a thought of life apart from her,
Solidity and vision lose their state,
For Earth, that gives the milk, the spirit gives.

This is the teaching that recurs again and
again throughout his later poems, as a fun-
damental theme returns in a great musical
composition. Thus, in the "Ode to the
Spirit of Earth in Autumn":

She can lead us, only she,
Unto God's footstool, whither she reaches.

Behold in yon stripped Autumn, shivering gray,
Earth knows no desolation,
She smells regeneration
In the moist breath of decay.

Autumn is the seed-time. "Death is the
word of a bovine day." In "Outer and
Inner" he sings:

I neighbor the invisible
So close that my consent
Is only asked for spirits masked
To leap from trees and flowers.
And this because with them I dwell
In thought, while calmly bent
To read the lines dear Earth designs
Shall speak her life on ours.

Accept, she says; it is not hard
In woods; but she in towns
Repeats, accept; and have we wept,
And have we quailed with fears,
Or shrunk with horrors, sure reward
We have whom knowledge crowns;
Who see in mould the rose unfold,
The soul through blood and tears.

IV.

Mr. Meredith's greatest achievement as a
literary artist is his successful handling of the
problems of sex, the treatment of love. There
is the mark of the master. Your ordinary
novelist when he comes to the presentment of
his lovers, their actions, bearing, words,
flounders about inextricably in a slough of
despond; he fails at the crucial test. Mr.
Meredith's marvelous insight enables him to
meet that test triumphantly. He knows the
hearts of his women as well as those of his
men. His love scenes are among the best
things he has given us; indeed, they are
among the best things in all literature.

To create characters that live, said Al-

phonse Daudet, that is the business of the
novelist, rather than to write fine prose. It
is Mr. Meredith's distinction to have done
both. The teaching of his novels is the same
as that of his poems: The life of the spirit
is the only life. Disregard death. "Train-
ing ourselves to live in the Universal, we
rise above the individual." And "the way
to spiritual life lies in the complete unfold-
ing of the creature, not in the nipping of his
passions. An outrage to nature helps to ex-
tinguish his light." His own life has been
the proof of the efficacy of his teaching. He
has been a great lover, not alone of nature
and of nature's God, but of his fellow men.
Contemptuous of traditional creeds and their
belittling tendencies, he has worked out his
own salvation; and he has shown that "it is
possible to rise above the temporal and per-
sonal, however dark and painful it may be,
and to live wholly, and even joyfully, in the
Universal and Eternal."

This philosophical novelist and poet has
been as great a preacher as Thomas Carlyle
or Matthew Arnold, but a saner mind than
either, with a wider sympathy and a greater
liberality. While the English language lasts
the best of his work will live. And it will
continue to be a powerful influence toward
directing the world's advance,—a force that
makes for righteousness. His work is not
without flaws; there are faults of construc-
tion, some mistakes that are apparent to any
critical tyro. In the bulk of his writing the
chief fault is excess,—an excess of persons,
things, scenes, emotions, thoughts hardly ger-
mane to the matter in hand, digressions,
words; "the superflux that proceeds from
intensely passionate feeling in conception."
And, to quote Mr. William Winter again,
"an affluence of fancy is more grateful than
the frigid sense of want."

Standing to-day with the snows of eighty
years upon him, yet with "head erect and
heart still young," and reaffirming his con-
viction gained from long and deep experi-
ence that "there is nothing which the body
suffers which the soul may not profit by,"
George Meredith, the Nestor of English
writers, may not unfittingly be characterized
by these lines from the poet of his intellectual
kinship:

He there with the brand flamboyant, broad o'er
night's forlorn abyss,
Crowned by prose and verse; and wielding, with
Wit's bauble, Learning's rod . . .
Well? Why, he at least believed in Soul, was
very sure of God.

NEW BUSINESS STANDARDS AT WASHINGTON— WORK OF THE KEEP COMMISSION.

BY C. H. FORBES-LINDSAY.

WHAT would be thought of a railroad company, a bank, or a publishing-house which should permit one of its departments to purchase ink, year after year, at the rate of \$3 per dozen quarts, while another department was supplied with precisely the same brand of writing-fluid at the uniform price of \$1.70 per dozen quarts, or of a large corporation in which the morning's mail regularly reached the desks of the persons for whom it was destined not earlier than noon of the following day? Yet these are but illustrations of practices and methods that until quite recently prevailed in government offices at Washington.

It was the "Keep Commission," officially known as the Committee on Departmental Methods, that brought to light not only a number of startling facts, such as the above mentioned, but revealed at the same time errors and irregularities in method which demanded immediate correction in the interest of efficient and economical government. Many of the indicated reforms have already been made, but others must await the sanction of Congress.

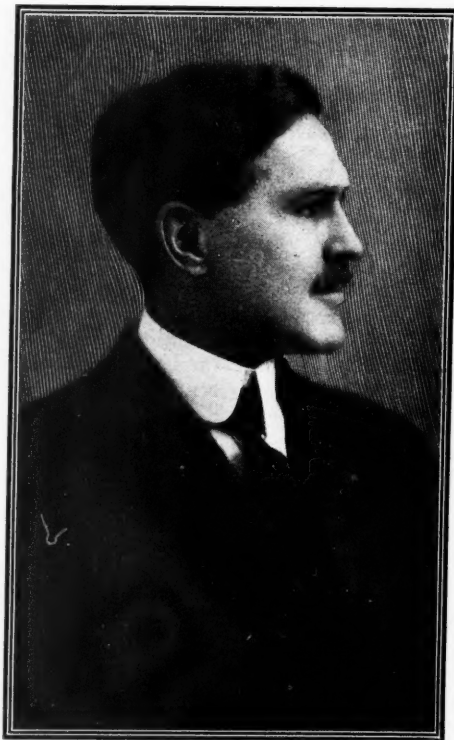
Abuses that grew out of the spoils system were found to be still in existence,—as in one division where sixty-five men were

employed copying letters in longhand into huge tomes that were never referred to. In one of the offices where the system of book-keeping recommended by the commission has

been installed a single ledger is now made to serve the purpose for which 400 were formerly employed, and the one is no larger than any of those which it has replaced. In another bureau, to which some 700 offices report, the monthly record of each has been reduced from about 50,000 words to eight or ten lines, and this with improvement, rather than impairment, of the service. In many instances the committees found two,—and in some cases three and four,—clerks doing precisely the same work. And in not a few cases it was work that it has been advisable to dispense with altogether.

The needless duplication of "places" was

not the only evil uncovered by the commission. It was found that the Government had been clinging to absurdly antiquated business practices out of mere bureaucratic regard for precedent. In offices that have an immense quantity of accounts to make out billing machines had never been employed,—merely because such labor-saving devices lacked the sanction of precedent. Such anomalous prac-



HON. JAMES R. GARFIELD.

(Secretary of the Interior, and an active member of the Keep Commission from the beginning of its work in the departments at Washington.)

tices as that followed by the Government Printing Office in paying the representatives of dead employees for vacation leave which the deceased did not happen to take rest upon defective or ill-judged statutes which only Congress itself can repair.

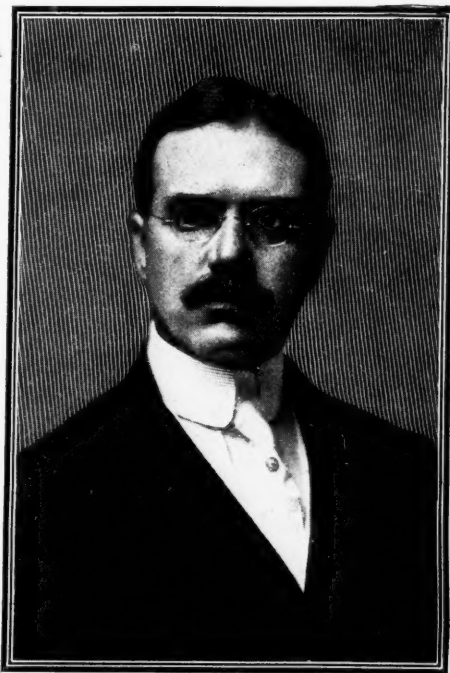
The investigation which has uncovered these conditions, thereby effecting a saving of millions of dollars annually to the taxpayers, has actually cost the Government about \$2000. All those employed in the work rendered their services without compensation and without taking time from their regular duties. This fact, in itself, is a striking illustration of the new spirit of devotedness that has entered our civil service and is fast pervading its ranks.

In constituting the Committee on Departmental Methods, somewhat more than two years ago, President Roosevelt chose five of the younger officials of the civil service, each one of whom already had a reputation for administrative ability and breadth of view. These men were named: Hon. Charles A. Keep, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury; Hon. Frank H. Hitchcock, First Assistant Postmaster-General; Hon. Lawrence O. Murray, Assistant Secretary of Commerce and Labor; Hon. James R. Garfield, at that time chief of the Bureau of Corporations, but since appointed Secretary of the Interior, and Hon. Gifford Pinchot, Chief of the Forest Service. Early last year Mr. Keep, who as chairman of the commission had given the body its name, resigned his Treasury position to accept a New York Public Service Commissionership.

The commission was directed by the President to ascertain where and in what respects our present Government methods fall short of the best business standards of to-day and to recommend measures of reform.

The commission carefully selected seventy employees of the Government, with varied experience, and formed them into sub-committees, which were used as probes to search the innermost recesses of the administrative machinery and discover the actual existing conditions. The committees made close inquiry into every condition and every phase of work connected with the service, and the resultant reports and recommendations exhaustively cover the ground, from sanitation of offices to making of Government contracts.

The remedial recommendations of the commission have almost all met with the approval of the President, and, where the authority of legislation is not necessary, they have been put



HON. CHARLES A. KEEP.

(From whom the "Committee on Departmental Methods" derived its popular designation.)

into effect with as little delay as possible, so that this reform movement has been in active operation for two years and has advanced a long way toward the contemplated consummation. When the desired action of Congress has been secured the executive branches of our Government will be by far the most efficient and economical of any in existence.

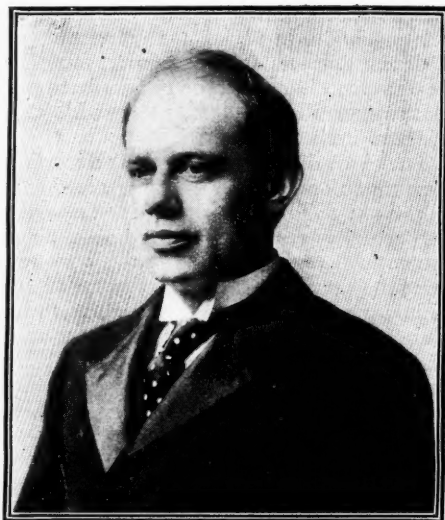
A brief review of a few of the subjects treated by the commission will afford an idea of the scope and direction of the inquiry and of the measure of improvement likely to result from it.

PERSONNEL AND SALARIES OF THE SERVICE.

The salaries now paid in the departmental service in Washington are based upon a classification of the clerks made by acts of Congress of 1853 and 1854, which graded the entire clerical force (except the departments of State and Justice) into four classes. To-day there are individual bureaus that have more employees than the entire departmental service had in 1853, and the responsibilities of their chiefs are incalculably greater than were those of the men who held similar posi-

tions fifty years ago. Nevertheless, there has never been any attempt to reclassify the positions, or to adjust the salaries with reference to these changed conditions, so that, at the present time, the most startling anomalies and inequities exist. Not only is there a great diversity of compensation for the same kind of work, but persons receiving the higher salaries are in many cases rendering the simplest routine service, while others in the lowest grades are performing duties of the most exacting character. Throughout the entire service the relation of the easier position, the more difficult position, and the responsible supervisory position has not for many years been adequately distinguished by the salary grades.

The lower grades of clerical employees in the Government service are better paid than the same class in private employment. Nevertheless, these positions have been the hardest of all to fill with competent persons. In the last fiscal year, 1462 eligibles were offered positions at less than \$900 a year in the departments at Washington. More than 30 per cent. declined, with the serious consequence that it was necessary to appoint in their stead individuals of distinctly inferior qualifications. The effect of this condition is far-reaching, since it is from the lower grades that the service is built up. It may be in-



HON. LAWRENCE O. MURRAY.

(Assistant Secretary of Commerce and Labor.)

ferred that the young man of parts, who is confident of his ability to rise in the world, cannot be tempted by the higher salary at the outset of his career, when it is accompanied by prospects of promotion decidedly limited as compared with those offered by commercial corporations.

On the other hand, the difficulty experienced in securing properly qualified clerks for positions paying from \$1000 to \$1500, and the great number of resignations from these grades, clearly indicate that the same character of service commands higher compensation in the business market. As to the supervisory, professional, and technical positions, they have long been recognized as very much underpaid in our departments.

These conditions have the effect of attracting to the Government service two distinct classes of men: First, those who have little ambition and no stomach for the struggle of the strong, and who find in a Washington clerkship a peaceful haven and a modest competence for life. Second, men actuated by public spirit, hope of political preferment, or desire to do big things, who are willing to sink monetary considerations for the sake of exceptional opportunities. Illustrations of this class are: Assistant Secretary of State Robert Bacon; Mr. Gifford Pinchot, of the Forest Service; Dr. Charles D. Walcott, of the Smithsonian Institution; Mr. Frederick Newell, of the Reclamation Service. In such



HON. FRANK H. HITCHCOCK.

(First Assistant Postmaster-General.)

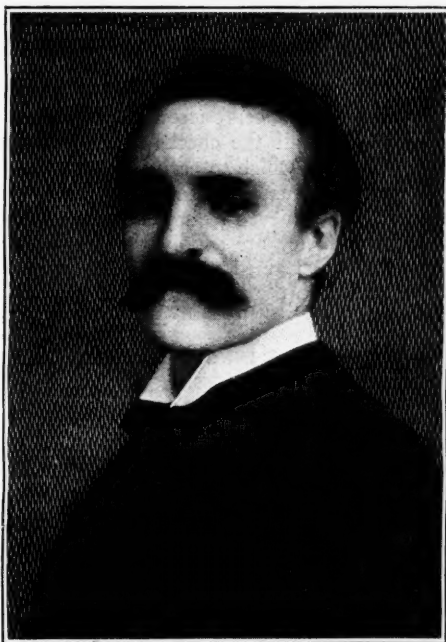
instances we find men of the highest administrative ability directing interests equivalent to the management of a great railroad, on salaries of \$4000 or \$5000 a year.

The recommendations of the commission, which will require Congressional approval, contemplate a complete reclassification of the service and a corresponding readjustment of salaries. The proposed system aims to attract a higher grade of recruits, by doing away with the \$50 and \$60 a month clerks and making the salary for the lowest grade \$900 a year. Frequent promotion is provided for, favoritism is guarded against, and the ultimate prospect is improved by a suggested long-service pension and life insurance. In the upper grades the salaries are placed sufficiently high to develop and retain the best executive and expert service.

The commission estimates that these increases in remuneration will entail no more than 10 per cent. addition to the appropriations for salaries, which would represent an amount trivial in comparison with the sum that will be saved as a result of the economies already effected by the investigation, and would be further justified by the higher class of entrants to the Government service and the enhanced standard of efficiency that will be maintained in every grade.

INTRODUCING UP-TO-DATE COMMERCIAL METHODS.

One of the most important features of latter-day commercial accounting is the analytical form of bookkeeping, which is styled "cost-keeping." Manufacturing establishments employ it to ascertain in detail the cost of articles produced; railroads use it in the analyses of their operating expenses, and insurance companies depend upon it for statistics of the general costs of management and agency operation. States and municipalities are adopting the system with marked effect, and it has proved to be of no less assistance in government work than in commercial business. It will make comparison possible between the operations of establishments doing the same class of manufacturing, such as mints, arsenals, and navy yards. It will enable the head of a department or bureau to determine where economies may be effected by introducing new arrangements in organization, or new methods in practice, to estimate more intelligently on the probable cost of future operations, to make contracts with closer calculation, to fix selling prices on products transferred to other branches of the



HON. GIFFORD PINCHOT.
(Chief of the Forest Service.)

Government, or sold to foreign governments, or to private concerns.

Cost-keeping, heretofore practiced in only two or three recently-organized government bureaus, will in future be employed wherever benefit can be derived from it, and the resultant advantages in mere dollars and cents must amount to millions every year.

In the matter of accounting, the commission found even the Treasury deplorably behind the times. This was one of the first subjects investigated, and reforms have been in force long enough to show the most markedly beneficial effects. As examples: The Treasury, which formerly only balanced its books once a year, at the expenditure of a great deal of time and trouble, now has a double-entry system of bookkeeping in force which enables it to strike a true balance at the close of each day's work. The account of the disbursing officer at New York, which used to take six months to make out, is now completed in two weeks. In a certain branch of the Government, where large and numerous financial transactions are carried on, the officials, who were accustomed to take ninety days to render an account, are now ready to do so daily. If a disbursing officer makes his last payment, for instance, at ten o'clock in the morning, he

can give a complete account of his affairs at noon of the same day. The Auditor of the Treasury, who has been in the habit,—and necessarily so under the old system,—of settling disbursing officers' accounts largely on faith, now has all the checks and vouchers before him with which to verify them.

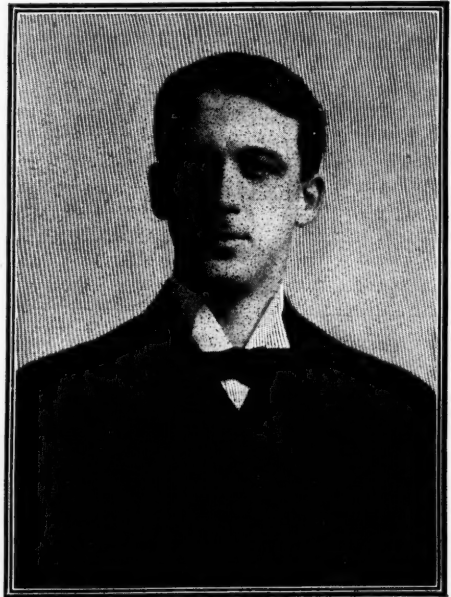
These improvements, be it understood, have not been achieved by any increase of the machinery. They are simply the results of better system, attained with less labor than was expended on the antiquated and cumbersome methods which have been abolished.

NEEDED REFORMS IN THE PURCHASE OF SUPPLIES.

It would naturally be supposed that in an institution purchasing supplies in such enormous quantities as does our Government the patent opportunities for economy and standardization would be embraced. Such has not, however, been the case. Each department,—and, in cases, a separate bureau or division,—advertises independently for what it needs, and contracts at a price without knowledge or regard for what the same goods are costing other branches of the Government or private corporations. A certain mucilage costs one department \$1.84 per dozen quarts and another \$3 per dozen quarts. The prices of the same make of pencils range from \$2.27 per gross to \$3.36 per gross. The cost of ice varies from 13 to 30 cents per 100 pounds, and no two departments contract for coal at the same figures. It should be borne in mind that articles of small unit value are consumed in quantities that represent hundreds of thousands of dollars, and the aggregate bills of the Government for such ordinary supplies run into the millions yearly.

No attempt whatever has been made to standardize supplies, so that 133 varieties of pencils, 28 kinds of ink, 263 different styles of pen-points, and all sorts of typewriter ribbon, are used in the various government offices. Hardly any check is placed upon waste or speculation. It would seem that every employee of the Government in Washington, from cabinet minister to colored messenger, uses twenty-three pencils each month, or, say, a total of 7,000,000 pencils a year, at a cost of \$150,000.

A bill to provide for the betterment of these conditions was introduced at the last session of Congress, but it was blocked in the Senate. However, in case the opposition to the measure continues in the present Congress, the Keep Commission has devised a



MR. OVERTON PRICE.
(Secretary of the Keep Commission.)

plan which will make for a great improvement in the purchase of supplies. An inter-department committee is suggested which shall insure uniformity in prices and, with the co-operation of the Bureau of Standards, shall establish standards of quality and test goods furnished under contract.

RESULTS IN EFFICIENCY AND ECONOMY.

There are many phases of the commission's work, and highly important ones, which it is impossible to notice in the limits of this article. The changes effected and suggested seem to be in almost every case adequate and practicable. They must result in vast improvement of service and enormous economy of administration. These are more than ever important considerations in this day, when modern civilization demands of Government an ever increasing service and the exercise of entirely new functions.

Of course, it is impossible to make a precise statement of the amount of saving in money, or of the degree of improvement in service that may be expected to result from the labors of the Keep Commission, but a few concrete illustrations will afford the basis for a general idea on both points. Careful inquiry among chiefs of bureaus and divisions elicited the assurance that in a great

majority of cases they anticipate at least doubled efficiency, and economies averaging 30 per cent. of former expenditures.

The Interior Department has almost completed a thorough reorganization. There were formerly a number of divisions through which all correspondence and matters for the consideration of the Secretary passed and were prepared for his action. The system involved serious delays and a great amount of unnecessary labor. There were other divisions,—one to furnish documents, another stationery, a third furniture, and so on,—which have all been consolidated, with important saving in work and expense. In the Land Office the increase in efficiency is incalculable,—certainly several hundred per cent.—and the saving in administration will be \$500,000 a year. The estimate for the Secretary's office proper is \$40,000 less than last year, despite the fact that the business to be done is greater. The work of the department is performed in less than half the time it used to consume, and the task of improvement is still in progress.

Public printing offers a good illustration of decrease in expenditures accompanied by improved service. A member of the cabinet once said to the writer: "If an official wants to effectually hide something from the public he cannot do better than put it in his annual report. No one will ever see it." This

jest is almost a literal truth. The reports have been cumbersome and repellent. They contained repetitions of the same matter, scientific treatises, general discussions, philosophical reflections, biographies and eulogies, and, in short, irrelevant and redundant matter of all kinds, and illustrations that had no excuse for their presence. In compliance with an executive order, the current reports have been restricted to pertinent subjects and are free from the objectionable features. They are, in consequence, much more useful, and have cost \$200,000 less than usual.

An enormous quantity of utterly useless printed material for which no demand existed has been issued by the Government yearly. In the past ten years 800,000 duplicate volumes have been returned to the Superintendent of Documents, and he has, for lack of storage facilities, declined the return of several hundred thousand more. And these figures relate solely to duplication in distribution to libraries and take no account of similar waste in the distribution to individuals. How great that has been may be inferred from the experience gained in the issue of two recent publications where the usual method was departed from. By taking care to prevent more than one copy going to the same individual a saving of 85,000 volumes was effected in these cases alone.

BETTER BUSINESS METHODS FOR CITIES.

BY WILLIAM H. ALLEN.

(Secretary of the Bureau of Municipal Research, New York City.)

THE importance of diagnosing the diseases with which American municipalities are sore afflicted is illustrated by the variety of remedies encountered in one day while visiting Boston. A college professor wanted each city divided into small districts for compulsory public discussion of city affairs. A university president urged government by a commission of "best, intelligent men," in numbers small enough that the blame for misgovernment could be definitely located. The private secretary of an eminent man wanted intelligent men to follow the example of his chief, who had been "talking every two weeks on the need for better men." An accountant of national repute demanded classified accounts. Restriction of immigration, disfranchisement of the ignorant and of the

unpropertied, enfranchisement of women, initiative, referendum, primary-election law, lectures to the foreign-born on American history,—each in turn is offered as a panacea for misgovernment in American cities.

The prevailing view among Boston editors, and one that has been reiterated by editors in New York, Philadelphia, Louisville, Chicago, Buffalo, San Francisco, etc., was effectively stated by Mayor Hibbard, of Boston, who took office on January 1:

I, too, am at present conducting a bureau of municipal research. Previous to the time of leaving my former position and becoming mayor, I joined an organization where it was necessary that I should state my occupation. I said: "Between hay and grass." Now it's grass, for the one thing I have found out after ten days of study is that I know less now about



Photograph by Davis & Sanford, N. Y.

MR. HENRY BRUÈRE.
(Director of the Bureau of Municipal Research.)

municipal administration in Boston than when I began. As to the problem of municipal administration, there is one sentence in the statement recently made by Comptroller Metz of New York that appeals to me strongly. It is that in which he says: "The problem of this office to-day is not one of discovering an irregularity here and there, but rather of reorganizing from start to finish this city's business methods so that irregularities that are invited to-day cannot occur next year." Now that is what we are trying to do in the city of Boston, and it is in that spirit that I welcome the officers of the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York.

THINGS IMPORTANT TO KNOW ABOUT A CITY GOVERNMENT.

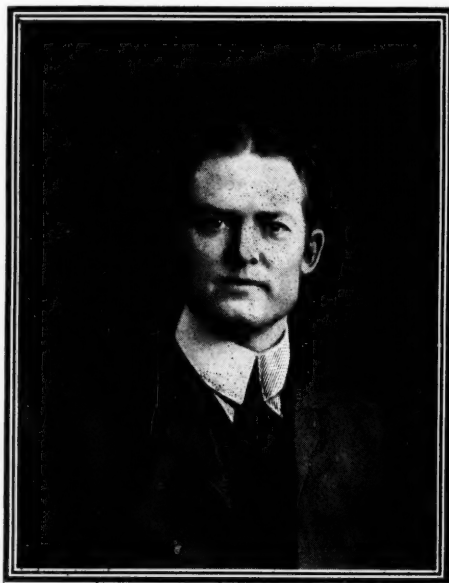
By "business methods," Comptroller Metz and Mayor Hibbard refer to methods that make it easy to exercise intelligent judgment. Intelligent judgment about business is rarely exercised except where it is easy to obtain the facts as to business results. Intelligent judgment with regard to municipal officials and municipal government will never be possible until it is made easy for all who may be benefited or injured by government to learn the essential facts as to government acts and community needs. In business the essential thing is not the name, the pedigree, the complexion or respectability of the manager, but the specific things that the manager

does. So in government the indispensable facts are not the political relation, the erudition, or personal characteristics of the official, but the specific things that he gets done, the specific things that he leaves undone or does wrong, the specific defects of government that injure the governed, causing unnecessary sickness, wretchedness, waste, arrested development of child life and of community life.

THE APPLICATION.

For business, methods have been devised that make it easy to record acts as they occur, to classify them where they belong and to report them regularly to managers and stockholders. The application of business methods to government means (1) the preparation of documents which may be used as evidence for locating the responsibility for each transaction, (2) the current filing and recording of this evidence in such manner that it may not be lost, (3) the calling each act by its right name, (4) the placing facts of a kind together in records of account that they may be interpreted, and (5) the reporting side by side what work is done and the cost of that work promptly and regularly to responsible officials, to electors, and to other parties in interest.

It is easier for the same methods to succeed in business than in government, because

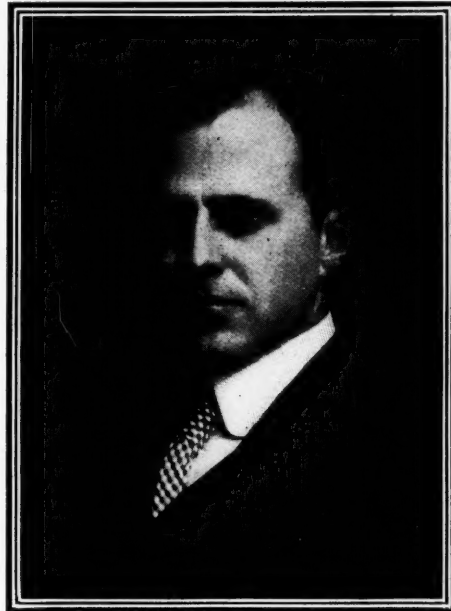


MR. FREDERICK A. CLEVELAND.
(Technical Director of the Bureau of Municipal Research.)

the parties in interest are relatively few in most business enterprises. Where interested parties are numerous business enterprise has shown the same defects as government enterprise; inside information has brought inside influence and inside profits. Witness specific insurance and transportation evils familiar to the public mind. The protection of interested parties at a distance from the acting representative has developed in business the compulsory outside audit and the supervision now more or less efficiently exercised by State governments. The protection of the taxpayer at a distance from the acting municipal officials requires efficient outside supervision and special knowledge such as can be exercised by volunteer bodies which, like the Bureau of Municipal Research, can co-operate with city officials to insure the recording, reporting, publishing, and interpreting of official acts and community needs so that the average taxpayer can easily exercise intelligent judgment as to government.

WHAT HAS BEEN DONE IN NEW YORK.

Organized in 1906, incorporated in May, 1907, as an independent scientific body, this organization has published unsensational, unprejudiced statements of fact showing the results of the following studies: (1) The city of New York, the street-railway companies and \$1,500,000 of unpaid bills; (2) some phases of the work of the department of street cleaning that make inefficiency and dirty streets inevitable; (3) improved property leased by the city of New York contrary to public health and morals; (4) how Manhattan is governed; (5) making a municipal budget; (6) a department of municipal audit and examination; (7) follow-up studies in all fields after first examination and report; (8) for the report of the Charter Revision Commission to Governor Hughes, the bureau charted the functions of the present government of New York City, showing what each department is expected to do and through what machinery and employees it now attempts to do it, the organization of twenty departments being shown in diagrams; (9) incidental to the study of Manhattan Borough and the Commissioners of Accounts' office, the Borough President of Manhattan was removed by Governor Hughes on charges of gross incompetence, and the senior Commissioner of Accounts resigned before the hearing of charges that he had employed men on the city payroll on private work during business hours. In an attempt to save



MR. WILLIAM H. ALLEN.
(Secretary of the Bureau of Municipal Research.)

his own prestige, the Borough President of Manhattan removed the Commissioner of Public Works, Superintendent of Public Buildings and Offices, and the chief engineer of the Bureau of Highways, and appointed efficient men in their stead, and permitted them to substitute in many departments efficient for inefficient methods and economy for waste.

REORGANIZING A CITY'S FISCAL SYSTEM.

As results of this citizen co-operation on the basis of facts the government of New York City is committed by resolution: (1) To uniform accounts that will tell for what acts money is spent,—installed in five major departments January 1, 1908; (2) to service records that will tell what acts are actually committed by employees and the results of those acts, the departments of health and street cleaning furnishing examples; (3) to annual budgets that will tell for what acts departments request funds, estimates being based upon actual cost of these same acts the preceding year,—eight departments having adopted the standard for 1908; (4) to a reorganization of its inspection and audit service, so that the veracity of statements from departments about acts, costs, and results can be proved,—notable results having already

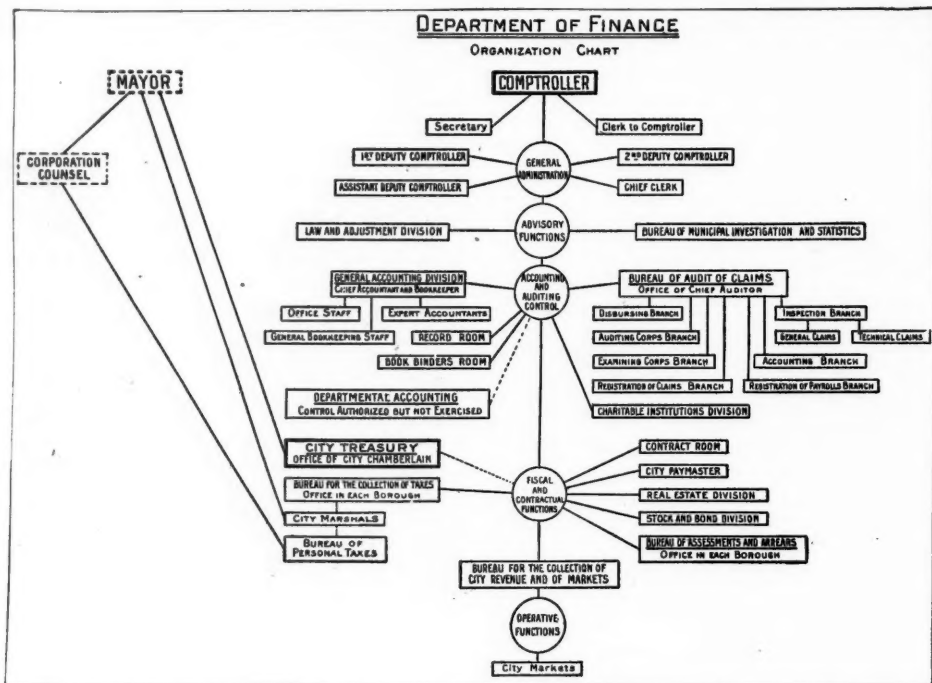


CHART NO. 1.

(The inco-ordinated collection of functions of which Comptroller Metz has said, "There can be no permanent improvement in controlling this city's finances without reorganizing this department.")

been achieved by the Commissioners of Accounts' office, now in process of reorganization; (5) to quarterly or annual reports to the public that will make intelligence easy and ignorance impossible except to those who refuse to read,—the best illustration being found in the department of health; (6) finally, which is perhaps most important of all, to the reorganization of the department of finance, which shall, to quote Comptroller Metz, "simplify the present cumbersome methods of transacting the business of this department; provide a system of revenue accounting for every branch of the city government where collections are made, so that all revenues accrued may be collected; work out a plan whereby this office may exercise constant supervision over the accounts of the city departments as required by law, and for which work it has at present no organization whatsoever; insure the city against the unnecessary disbursement of funds by installing a modern and careful system of audit of all claims."

According to the Comptroller, the aim of this program is not to gather statistics, not to make up beautiful balance sheets that lay-

men cannot understand, but "to insure such current records that not only the Comptroller can secure information without weeks of investigation, but that citizens asking intelligent questions may be readily answered."

The method by which the Bureau of Municipal Research and the staff of the Comptroller's office have been co-operating for the past year is illustrated by the two accompanying charts, one showing how the department of finance is now organized to exercise its present charter powers over administrative departments, the second embodying the bureau's suggestions for the reorganization of the department of finance necessary to the efficient exercise of its present charter powers. The second chart was not devised until experience showed that the department of finance as at present organized has neither mechanism nor men for installing and supervising the recently adopted uniform system of accounts for all city departments. It was obvious to the Comptroller that a system could not be installed and efficiently operated in hospitals and police and water departments simply by sending pieces of paper and accounting forms to the chief clerks. For the

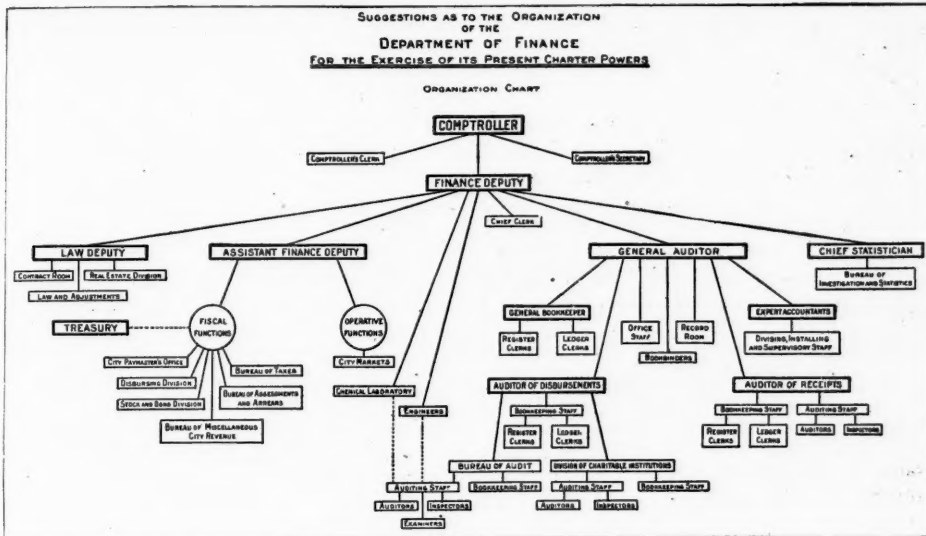


CHART NO. 2.

(A plan for locating responsibility within the department and for showing currently whether disbursements and receipts are controlled in the public interest.)

Comptroller to give a new system of accounts to the water department without instructing the latter's bookkeepers how to use it, and without seeing to it that the bookkeepers follow instructions, would be just as ineffective as the prescription of the school physician who found a child brushing its teeth with the new tooth-brush soaked in rhubarb, both of which he had told the mother to buy. Therefore, the Comptroller asked the bureau to make a study of the finance department, with a view to suggesting a mechanism and method suitable for installing and supervising departmental accounts.

WHERE THE OLD ORGANIZATION FAILED.

The detailed study made by the bureau confirms the statement of the Comptroller, that "the present department of finance, with all due respect to my predecessors, has always been disorganized." From the first chart it will be seen that all lines lead directly to the Comptroller. In the second chart no line leads directly to the Comptroller except that from his first deputy, who in turn exercises supervision through bureau heads responsible to him for sifting the significant from the insignificant among the multitude of facts recorded in the Comptroller's office. The first chart holds the Comptroller responsible for a multitude of office details. The second chart relieves him of all details, thus conserving his

time and energies for the exercise of discretion on subjects that have already received the best attention of which his subordinates are capable. The first chart shows fifteen or more subordinates each supreme within his own square, because he alone understands how to read the meaning of the records in his charge. The second chart shows clearly the duties and responsibilities of division heads, and indicates, furthermore, that each one is to render an account to his superior officer, who shall receive currently the story told by his subordinates' records. Please to note that under the plan now being worked out things of a kind are to be carefully kept together, and things that are unlike are to be carefully separated from each other. For example, the contracting and rate-making powers, the collecting and disbursing powers, are separately grouped.

PRINCIPLE APPLICABLE TO OTHER CITIES.

The confusion represented by chart number 1 is not peculiar to New York City. On the other hand, the principle underlying the reorganization chart is generally applicable. Whether the city is large or small, and whatever the department to be managed, there should be documentary evidence of work done and of money spent, so that every city official is protected against misrepresentation by insiders or outsiders, by subordinates or supe-

riors, and that the public can definitely locate responsibility for waste, inefficiency or corruption. For illustration, let us choose what is probably the most interesting feature of this chart, viz.: (the lower right hand division) "Auditor of Receipts," which it is noticed does not appear in the present organization. The city of New York issues permits and licenses, rents markets, buys and sells property, sells water and collects fines and taxes. Receipts from these and other sources aggregate over \$100,000,000 annually. John Smith may pay \$50 for a license. This fact is clearly written on his receipt. If by accident or by design the stub reads \$5 for that license, the discrepancy can now be discovered only by having a man stand over the writer of the receipt. Thousands and thousands of dollars are spent in making sure that the \$5 marked on the receipt stub is copied as \$5 in the cash book, in register and ledger.

THE USE OF GRADUATED RECEIPTS, ETC.

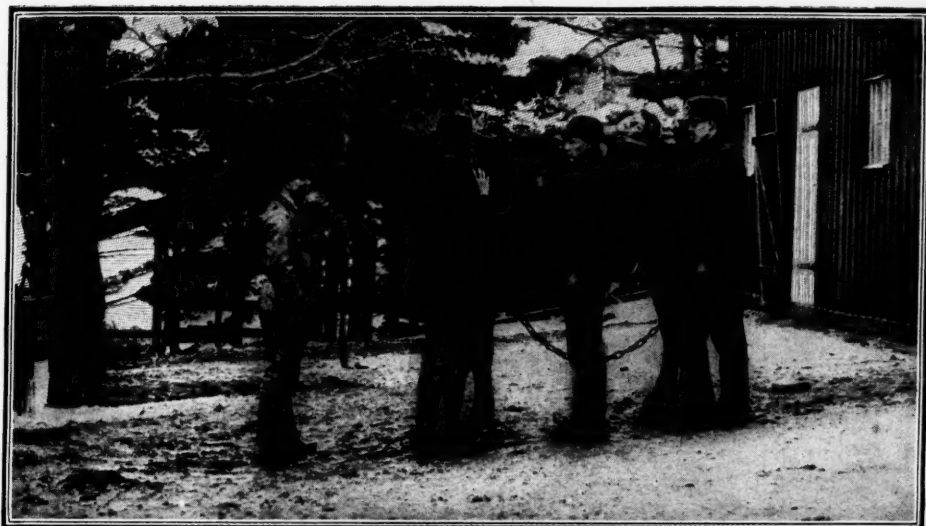
The reorganization is intended to provide that a stub cannot differ from a receipt without detection. For fixed fees and licenses, the accuracy of records and the fidelity of employees will be tested by charging a clerk or bureau for the number of receipt blanks at their recorded value; where the amount due cannot be determined in advance, graduated receipts will be used as in post-offices; for water rates, taxes, etc., duplicate bills will be sent to the auditor of receipts by the water department; for leases, bills will be sent out by the auditor of receipts. In other words, to check up the amounts received by various city departments, the auditor of receipts will have documentary evidence of amounts due in his own office, in the form of graduated receipt, serially numbered stubs having a fixed value, duplicate tax list, water register list, or record of lease values, etc.

By setting side by side the amount of taxes assessed and the amount in arrears reported by the deputy exercising fiscal functions (at the left of the chart) with the amount re-

ported as received by the auditor of receipts, the general auditor, the finance deputy, Comptroller, and general public can learn where money due has not been paid, and what amounts of money are being withheld from the city that should be in hand to prevent the need for borrowing money at high interest rates.

EXPENDITURES MUST SHOW RESULTS.

The reader interested in the methods employed in his own city may be helped by asking his city Comptroller or mayor which of these two charts most nearly represents the business methods employed in the office of the Comptroller or auditor. A very important question is whether or not this central clearing house for information as to cost, has a department such as "Chief Statistician" in chart 2 for obtaining facts as to work done, or whether there are expert accountants with authority to insist upon records and accounts in the various departments that will make the truth legible when reported to the fiscal center. The Bureau of Municipal Research is interested in methods only because proper methods are indispensable to learning results. Whether within a city, a board of education or a fire department, the place to look for intelligence is the place where money is spent. If those who disburse public funds acquire the habit of measuring costs by results before claims are authorized and before money is paid, efficiency and honesty will be made easier than inefficiency and dishonesty. If private citizens desiring to promote self-government for the benefit of the governed will begin municipal reform by working for organization and methods that disclose inefficiency and efficiency alike, they will be surprised to find how ready city officials are to co-operate. If private philanthropy will spend upon municipal research a small fraction of the amounts now generously given to alleviate the physical and social evils of misgovernment, "America's conspicuous failure,—municipal government,"—will become America's conspicuous success.



COAL MINERS TRANSPORTING A PATIENT ON THE BACK OF A MULE.

WHY NOT A "RED CROSS" FOR THE ARMY OF INDUSTRY?

BY ARTHUR B. REEVE.

"WHAT are you doing for him?" asked the hoisting engineer of a neighboring colliery, as he peeped in through the door of the dimly lighted shed at an apparently lifeless form with a blanket carelessly pulled over it.

"Sending for the undertaker," was the nonchalant response of the group of men outside.

"What was the matter,—gas?"

"Sure."

"Couldn't you revive him?"

"Didn't try. What's the use? He's done for."

"Well, you *are* a fine bunch. Don't you know anything about it at all? No? It's none of my business, I suppose, but a few weeks ago our company had a lecture on first aid to the injured. I've pretty nearly forgotten just what you do for a man knocked out by gas, but,—oh, yes, it's just the same as you do in case of drowning. Now, here, a couple of you men look alive and work his arms,—so. Don't stop till I tell you. The doctor said never to stop if you kept at it for two or three hours. Gently now and steady. That's it."

This little incident happened several

months ago in a mining town of the soft-coal region. To-day one miner is at work in Pennsylvania instead of having been added as another unit to the already large figure of asphyxiations in the State Department of Mines report. One couldn't ask for a better example of what first aid to injured miners is doing.

Of course the State law requires that at the bottom of each shaft there shall be an emergency hospital, and indeed there is, but it has usually been found to be of comparatively little use. At least that is what Mr. W. J. Richards, general manager of the Philadelphia Coal & Iron Company, found, and he has known the coal regions most of his life. There must first of all be somebody who knows how to use it. An idea came to him that in each one of the fifty or more collieries of the company there ought to be a "first-aid" corps. So he had the company doctor go to each one of them in turn and call for volunteers. At each colliery a dirty, grimy crowd of willing men stepped forth, eager to enlist in the service, and out of the men themselves,—or, rather, out of the boys who work at driving the mules or opening doors,—the doctor organized 350 into squads.



CARRYING A PATIENT DOWN A FLIGHT OF STEPS ON A LITTER.

Did it work? Listen to this story by the doctor who carried out the scheme: "One night I was on my way to the hall where we were going to have our regular lecture and practical demonstration, when a telegram was handed to me saying that a man with a crushed ankle was coming by the next train to the hospital. I thought I'd stop on the way and see how he was getting on, and just as I reached the hospital the ambulance drove up with the patient.

"How is he getting on?" I asked the surgeon.

"Fine, sir," was the reply. "His ankle has been dressed by a doctor and I wouldn't disturb it."

"On the way to the hall I determined to make that particular injury the subject of one of the demonstrations before the boys, who had come from the scattered collieries. I told the story and had one squad after another dress the ankle of an imaginary victim. Finally, as a new squad came forward, I asked one quiet young fellow in it if he thought he could handle such a case.

"Oh, yes, doctor," he replied. "I dressed

that case you spoke of. The accident happened just as we were starting to come here, and so the squad came on the train with him."

"The ambulance surgeon had said the ankle was dressed by a doctor!"

They are now beginning to measure the value of first aid in dollars and cents, also. It was recently announced that as a result of it there would in the future be a 15-per cent. increase in the benefits which injured miners would receive from the miners' benefit fund. In other words, prompt treatment has made recovery so much more rapid and certain that during the last year the men lost less time through disability than ever before, although more coal was mined and the number of ac-

cidents remained about normal. First aid has, therefore, both enabled a man to return to regular wages more quickly and has increased his weekly allowance while he is laid up.

I was once talking to a coal operator about accidents, and before long he became angry and blurted out: "Well, what would you have us do? Stop mining coal?" No, we cannot stop mining coal nor can we deny the truth of the assertion that even under the best of conditions coal mining is what the Anthracite Strike Commission said it was,—one of the few most dangerous occupations which any great number of men follow. But we can at least have more regard for the care of miners when they are injured, and, therefore, a system such as this deserves recognition as an object lesson, not only to coal mining, but to all industry.

The fifty-odd squads for first aid meet regularly for practice and instruction, and at the meetings each squad is provided with a man who is willing to be bandaged and dressed as if he were really injured. Some particular form of injury is selected for the

lesson, and, after instructions have been given, the boys practice on their willing patient until they succeed in handling him satisfactorily.

Among other things, first-aid instruction is carefully limited to getting the victim ready to be carried to a hospital, or to reviving him from asphyxiation preparatory to the arrival of a doctor. "What would you do if the patient should call you in the next day to redress the wound?" asked a visiting surgeon once. "Well, if I did it, I should expect

to be prosecuted for practicing medicine without a license," replied the boy, repeating the instructions carefully drummed into his head.

The emergency hospital at the bottom of the shaft in each mine is provided with beds, stretchers, splints, bandages, and other necessities, to which is added a portable case, very ingeniously devised by the company doctor himself, containing bandages and dressings, which may be carried to the scene of the accident at once by one of the boys. The rest of the squad, if the accident were an explosion of dynamite, for instance, would hurry with stretchers and splints from the hospital.



DRESSING FOR COMPOUND FRACTURE OF THE LEG.

A hasty examination reveals, perhaps, a broken leg, and at once a tightly wrapped package is taken from the kit, with all the bandages necessary for this particular case. The boys carefully bandage the leg and secure it between two splints, one five feet long, extending from the armpit to below the foot, and another three feet long, on the inside of the leg. Then the patient is lifted on the stretcher and carried to the foot of the shaft and up in the elevator to an ambulance that is by this time waiting. It's all in the day's work of mining our coal, this matter of accidents, and at best the journey is likely to be a long and painful one.

In the many transfers from stretcher to elevator and from elevator to ambulance, and possibly then to railroad train, many a simple fracture has, before the advent of the first-aid squad, been changed into a compound fracture by inexperienced handling. The time of recovery from a simple fracture is measured in weeks, from a compound fracture in months. The grimy men down there in the coal-pits know all this; that is why



IMPROVED LITTER,—A BLANKET AND TWO SAPLINGS.

when the squad was introduced there were so many volunteers.

Take the case of severe burns from gas or explosives. Something must be done immediately, and yet the burn cannot be dressed again very soon, for too frequent dressing is almost as bad as none at all. Oil and cotton are the usual materials used, but the cotton becomes dirty, and perspiration and coal dust render it foul. What would you do for a man like that? A doctor who knows all about it has devised packets of large square pieces of cotton gauze soaked and dried in a 2-per cent. solution of picric acid. Applied in several layers by the boys, and securely covered by cotton, the heat of the body quickly liberates enough of the picric-acid dressing to make an effective treatment for at least forty-eight hours. That is an example of what scientific medical common-sense can do for industry, and should be duplicated in every dangerous trade.

In many cases accidents in mines bring serious losses of blood. The first-aid squad has been taught the location of the principal arteries, and the "tourniquet," a strap with a knob that presses on the artery, is provided, and they are taught how to use it. Then there is the treatment for asphyxiation, that is carefully taught them.

Ingenuity must be used with the miner, if nothing else. Take, for example, the "dirty-hand" problem. Of course all these dressings, carefully sterilized and sealed as they are, must be applied by boys at once, and any one who has ever been in a coal mine knows that clean water is an alien conception to such a place. To overcome the dirty-hand problem the gauze and other materials are wrapped and folded in strips of paper, or the paper is interposed between the layers in such a way that no finger need touch any part of the dressing. Another queer problem presented is that of whiskey. Starting in with it as a stimulant, it is sometimes so freely administered that a patient has frequently been known to arrive at the hospital completely under its influence, in addition to his other troubles. The first-aid squad confines its stimulants to hot coffee and aromatic spirits of ammonia.

It is, of course, too soon to see yet the immense educational effect of this new spirit in this company's mines. When the present boys in the first-aid squads are miners, and others have taken their places, a great many of the rough, and, to those who do not think, uncouth miners will know more about such

things as the care of the human body in emergencies than most of the educated public for whom they are making their vicarious sacrifices "a mile or so from daylight." Besides, the scheme has taken so well that the many first-aid squads have a keen sense of rivalry, and now they are having contests every year for medals offered by the company.

Such success for first aid is not the experience of the coal-mining industry alone. Every other company that has tried it, in other industries, has found the same result. Its value has been proved over and over again in dollars and cents. In the cotton mills of Rhode Island it has lately been installed. In one of the largest electrical plants in the country, as you pass through, you frequently notice the first-aid kits on the walls, with cards of instructions for all sorts of emergencies; while the company has issued a neat little booklet, bound strongly in cloth and fully illustrated, telling briefly and clearly just what first aid in case of electric shock is. Among the many sociological works of the Colorado Fuel & Iron Company are its first-aid instruction and splendid service. In all these cases such care has been found to pay in measurable money amount. The German and French manufacturers have found this out, also.

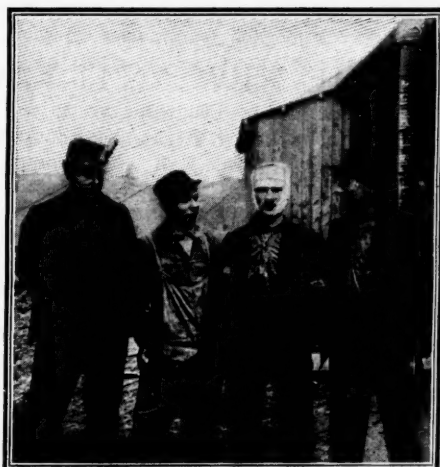
In Massachusetts a law has been passed requiring manufacturers to keep on hand a first-aid or emergency kit in the event of accident to any of their employees. Yet even so slight a move as the announcement of the board of health in one city, not long ago, that it would enforce this simple law raised a storm of abuse from some employers, who charged that there was graft back of it. When actually pinned down to facts they were forced to admit that the basis was a mere conjecture that "perhaps somebody has got options on a lot of first-aid kits." On the other hand, the most considerate employers of the city with one accord hastened to comply with the requirements of the law, and indeed many of them had already done so voluntarily.

Large corporations have so far proved the only ones to see the value of first aid. The Pennsylvania Railroad, for instance, has recently begun an aggressive campaign of education in first aid among its 198,000 employees scattered over an aggregate of 11,000 miles of line. This is being accomplished by a series of lectures delivered at different points on its lines under the direction of the company's medical examiner. This work will be of the most comprehensive character, and

those employees directly connected with train operation will at the end of the course be closely questioned on the subject when taking examinations in the future for promotion. Stretchers, together with first-aid packets containing bandages and dressings, have been placed upon the trains and at convenient points along the line, so that the men can have prompt equipment for carrying on the work, both for employees and passengers who are injured. The "first-aid room" in New York is a matter of great pride to the company.

The railroad Y. M. C. A. at Camden, New Jersey, some time ago took the courses offered by the New York Society for Instruction in First Aid to the Injured. The secretary of the association has said: "The Camden corps is doing splendid work, and its services are much appreciated by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. During the year they have been called upon to take charge of 227 cases, 55 of which were taken by their men to the hospital and 172 treated by them at the shops without the aid of physicians. All of these cases have fully recovered except two, one of these men having been severely shocked by electricity and the other having had a foot crushed. But both of them are doing well and will, I hope, soon return to work."

Manufacturers who are interested can do no better than make a beginning with the course of five lectures prepared by the Society for the Instruction in First Aid to the Injured, which was organized as long ago as



HEAD DRESSING DONE BY THE FIRST-AID SQUAD, WADESVILLE COLLIERY, PA.

1882, under the chairmanship of Gen. George B. McClellan, as a committee of the State Charities Aid Association in New York. It is now a separate society, aiming to give instruction by means of lectures in first aid,—free to those unable to pay; for others from \$1 to \$3 for the course. There is one lecture each week, occupying an hour and a half, a review of work previously gone over, and a half-hour of practical work such as the application of bandages and splints, restoration of the apparently drowned, lifting the injured, carrying on stretchers, etc. Diplomas are awarded at the end of the course to those who pass a satisfactory examination. Last year 2223 persons were instructed and 1854 diplomas issued, while in the past twenty-five years 24,193 persons have been instructed and 18,164 have passed the examination and received diplomas. So far the work has been mainly in the police and fire departments of the city, with an occasional class in the Y. M. C. A.'s or the public schools. But the idea ought to be taken up by manufacturers.

A single illustration will prove the need: The manager of the insurance department of a large corporation has said:

Many personal-injury accidents cost less money than heretofore, by reason of the fact that, in addition to protective measures, we installed a system of "first aid." This was a means of shortening disabilities. Prior to April, 1905, the average disability of shop men on account of personal injury was sixteen days. By prompt application of "first aid" in an anti-septic form, this has been reduced to eleven days.



SPLINT IMPROVISED FROM THE SKIRT OF THE PATIENT'S COAT.

THE NEW ANTI-VAGRANCY CAMPAIGN.

BY FRANCES MAULE BJÖRKMAN.

FOR the first time a concerted effort is being made in the United States to attack the vagrancy problem. Most of the countries of Europe,—notably England, Germany, Belgium, and Switzerland,—have had both legislative and administrative means of dealing with it for many years, but America, instead of instituting measures against the tramp, has raised him to the heights of a national joke. Our national attitude toward him is tolerant and indulgent. The nicknames by which we refer to him are, at worst, of a mildly bantering character, although they betray a thorough understanding of his real nature. The extensive literature which he has evoked is based on the popular recognition of his aversion to work, his contempt of veracity, his predilection for beer, and his horror of water both for interior and exterior use,—but it is not the sort of thing that leads to authoritative anti-vagrancy action. The stage tramp is the most irresistibly funny of comic characters. On the whole, our mental image of the vagabond is a humorous one, and we hardly think of him except in a humorous light.

And yet the "Weary Walker" of the American comic press represents a much more serious problem than his European brother. In the Old World the vagrant exists largely as a survival of the "journeyman" of the ancient trade guilds, the young workman, who, on completing his apprenticeship, was sent on the road to practice his trade before being invested with the degree of "master" and the right to set up in business for himself. Therefore, except in exceptional cases, the purpose of the European wayfarer is to get work. As a rule he makes no attempt to steal rides on the railroads, and he is usually both able and willing to pay for his meals and lodgings. Whatever begging he does is of a casual nature. The fact that his numbers are greatly multiplied in times of financial depression, when many men are thrown out of employment in the cities, is fairly conclusive evidence that, in intention at least, he is a workingman.

This is far from being the case with the American tramp. He is not looking for

work. He is traveling for pleasure. He does not tramp. He rides the railroads. He is a chronic and incorrigible beggar. His deliberate purpose is to get a living out of society without giving anything in return. Hard times or good times do not affect his numbers. There is apparently absolutely no connection between him and the problem of the unemployed. He persists in times of prosperity and in times of financial stress.

MAGNITUDE OF OUR TRAMP PROBLEM.

What the size of the tramp army is no one can tell, but a vague idea of its magnitude can be guessed from the fact that the number of trespassers killed and injured on American railroads from the year 1901 to the year 1905, inclusive,—of which it is estimated that at least two-thirds were tramps,—amounted to 49,200: just thirteen times more than the number of passengers and more than the combined total of passengers and trainmen killed and injured during the same period. Some one has estimated that if the number of vagrants on the road is in the same proportion to the number of vagrants killed as the number of trainmen on the road is in proportion to the number of trainmen killed, there must be more than half a million tramps beating their way on American railroads every year. The annual loss to railroads through the destruction of property by tramps has been loosely estimated by Major J. G. Pangborn, of the Baltimore & Ohio, as something like \$2,500,000.

All this represents a tremendous cost to society. The tramp who is injured on the railroad usually becomes a public charge for the rest of his life, and the tramp who is considerate enough to permit himself to be killed outright has to be buried, either by the railroad or by the county, town, or State in which he loses his life.

And these things are only a part of what it costs us to maintain our national joke. Supervisor S. K. Estabrook, of the Wayfarers' Lodges in Philadelphia, estimates that tramps, when they are not on the road being fed and lodged by farmers and railroads,

spend one-third of their time in almshouses, one-third in houses of correction, and one-third in missions and lodging-houses whose rates are so low that the price of a bed can readily be begged on the street. At the approach of winter the jails which impose no labor on their prisoners are taxed to their capacity to accommodate the sudden flood of petty malefactors who seem to be hurling themselves into the arms of the law. In the summer such members of the constitutionally fatigued brotherhood as are not in the country begging their way, and incidentally rendering the highways unsafe for women and children, are in the city occupying the parks as lodgings and incidentally unfitting the park benches for use by any one but themselves.

AUTHORITIES ENCOURAGE THE EVIL.

These facts in regard to the American vagrant were laid before the thirty-fourth annual Conference of Charities and Corrections at Minneapolis last June by Mr. Orlando F. Lewis, who as superintendent of the Joint Application Bureau of the Charity Organization Society and the Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor in New York has made a special study of the vagrancy problem. In his paper Mr. Lewis showed that town and city authorities all over the country, instead of doing anything to abate the evil, with only a few exceptions are adding materially to it by refusing to incur the expense of arresting and prosecuting men who are caught stealing rides on the railroads. In support of his statements he read extracts from letters of numerous railroad officials stating that their troubles with vagrants were almost wholly due to lack of co-operation in repressive measures on the part of authorities of the towns and cities through which their roads pass. President James J. Hill of the Great Northern wrote that it was almost invariably the custom of magistrates in the towns along his route to let off all the vagrants brought before them for trial with a peremptory order to leave town within twenty-four hours. Other officials were quoted by Mr. Lewis as saying that policemen, instead of arresting tramps, frequently order them not to get off the trains, and, in some instances, actually help them to climb aboard in order to facilitate their exit from the community. Still other officials wrote that they had found it necessary to subsidize municipal authorities with money or passes in order to secure the con-

viction and commitment of tramps arrested by their own special policemen.

In places where tramps are arrested and convicted, Mr. Lewis said that sentence is frequently suspended on condition that the offender leave town without delay. In many municipalities it is the custom to release all prisoners convicted of vagrancy a few days after commitment. In others they are left practically unguarded, that they may escape if they feel disposed to do so.

THE RAILROAD THE KEY TO THE TRAMP SITUATION.

Thus the railroads are infested with tramps because of the parsimony of municipalities, and, by a sort of poetic justice, they become in turn the great purveyors in tramps to municipalities. "Naturally," says President James J. Hill, "when every town is pursuing the 'passing-along policy,' each one receives exactly as much refuse as it gets rid of."

However, according to Mr. Lewis, the railroads themselves are not doing all in their power to suppress the tramp evil. None of them is adequately policed. Few maintain any police except at stations and in city yards. The ejection of tramps from the trains is left almost wholly to the train crews, and these men are often unequal to the task. Furthermore, many trainmen are not unwilling to let a "bo" ride in return for a "fare" that goes no further than his own pocket. Dr. George L. Reitman, the Chicago physician who has tramped with tramps all over the world and whose relations with the wandering fraternity are so intimate that he once gave a "hobo banquet" at a leading Chicago hotel, says that the railroad is the key to the situation and that if it would make the tramps tramp there would soon be no tramps.

THE PUBLIC'S MISPLACED SYMPATHY.

But the ill-considered economy of municipalities and the laxity of railroads are not the only causes that contribute to the perpetuation and spread of vagrancy. Mr. Lewis lays much of the responsibility to the misdirected sympathy of the general public. He condemns unsparingly the sentiment that prompts the kitchen "poke-out," that maintains bread-lines and coffee-wagons, that permits the use of police stations and parks as lodgings, that defends the free "bed-ticket," and that prevents systematic attack on the "hobo joint" on the ground that the poor

man should not be deprived of the only shelter which his means can buy.

Since Jacob Riis, notwithstanding the protests of the sentimental, caused the practice of giving lodging to vagrants in the police stations of New York to be abandoned, public sentiment has changed in this one particular. Most of the large cities are now following the example of the metropolis and providing more suitable accommodations for their penniless wayfarers. In all other respects, however, there is still a strong disinclination on the part of civil authorities to institute any measures that may be construed by the public as a discrimination against the poor. Last summer the Women's Health Protective League, at the suggestion of Mr. Lewis, tried to get Police Commissioner Bingham, of New York, to clear the parks and squares of the all-day and all-night "squatters" by issuing a peremptory order to his men to enforce the "moving-on" ordinance, but their attempt was not successful, although Mr. Lewis stated publicly that it would be cheaper for the city to buy its vagrants opera seats than to permit them to make lodgings of its park benches.

On the same general grounds the missions have refused to discontinue their practice of giving "bed-tickets" to professed penitents, although the administrators of practical philanthropy have pointed out repeatedly that this particular form of charity operates chiefly to encourage hypocrisy as well as pauperism. It always insures a good attendance at meetings and a fine showing at the mourners' bench, but, as a rule, only the men who have lost even the "hobo" standards of pride and decency will take advantage of it. A certain young and vigorous member of the profession once assured the writer with tears in his eyes that "one thing he had never done in all his life was to get converted for a bed-ticket."

THE CHEAP LODGING-HOUSES.

Recently, however, in the face of the opinion of the public that the poor man is entitled to any sort of shelter that he can pay for, radical measures have been taken to reform and therefore to raise the prices of the "tramp joints" that line the New York Bowery from City Hall to Chatham Square. Convinced by his conversations with men applying to his society for aid that the cheap lodging-houses are making confirmed "bums" and "hoboes" out of the potentially honest citizens who arrive in New York

without money, as fast as they get hold of them, Mr. Lewis made a searching investigation into all the 10, 15, and 25-cent hotels in Manhattan and Brooklyn.

He found that there are 101 of these places in Manhattan alone. Although a few charge 25 cents for their best accommodations, the average tariff is 10 cents. Some idea of the manner in which the lodgers are crowded together may be gained from the estimate that from 12,000 to 15,000 beds are let out every night. It is probably needless to say that in every house there reigned conditions of indescribable filth and corruption.

Mr. Lewis laid his findings before Commissioner Darlington of the New York Department of Health, and Dr. Darlington, after having confirmed Mr. Lewis' report with an investigation of his own, drew up and had adopted a set of regulations making it compulsory upon every lodging-house to maintain a high standard of cleanliness and decency, whether its patrons liked it or not.

The lodging-house keepers, however, joined in bringing a suit to test the constitutionality of the measure. The suit is still pending, and, on the strength of the fact, all the lodging-houses have succeeded in getting their licenses renewed without having been put to the expense of making any improvements beyond a coat of whitewash here and there.

CHICAGO'S NEW VAGRANCY LAW.

In the absence of concerted action of any kind most of the other sporadic attempts to grapple with the problem have been about as effective. Last summer Chicago made an effort to get at her gigantic floating population that makes its headquarters in the political district controlled by the renowned Hinkey Dink and Bathhouse John, by giving to municipal courts the power to fine or imprison persons held as vagrants, permitting policemen to arrest persons accused of vagrancy without warrant, and permitting conviction for vagrancy, although the person arrested might be in possession of means, if he could not show that he had a regular way of earning a living. The newspapers expressed editorially great hopes of the new law, but, although it has now been in operation for several months, it does not seem to have had much effect. The population of South Clark street has not been diminished in size nor altered in character, nor have the vagrancy cases in the courts been materially increased. The measure operated beautifully to enable the machine to lay hands

upon certain unoffending citizens against whom it had a grudge,—notably a number of strike pickets,—but it left useful members of the Bathhouse and Hinkey Dink constituency untouched.

RIGID EXCLUSION FROM NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Such communities as have good vagrancy laws and as have been successful in getting them enforced, are able to keep their own precincts clear of the tramp nuisance only at the expense of their neighbors. The knights of the road merely brand each one of these places as "a hostile burg," and pass on to more hospitable localities. New England, which has the most rigid vagrancy laws in the country, is very little troubled by tramps, but it is surrounded on all sides by territory that is infested with them. The New Hampshire law, which empowers any resident to bring a tramp before a magistrate and which stimulates the citizens to take advantage of the privilege by offering a reward of \$10 for each such arrest, operates chiefly to keep New Hampshire's just share of vagabonds distributed among other States.

A NATIONAL ANTI-TRAMP CRUSADE.

Mr. Lewis' paper made a profound impression upon the reformers and philanthropists in the Minneapolis conference, but it did more than that. It made a profound impression upon the public. From one end of the country to the other the newspapers published extensive extracts from it, with editorials calling attention to the significant facts and figures which it contained and urging their municipalities to act upon them. The editorials called forth a flood of replies from private citizens, social workers, and public officials indorsing these sentiments and giving additional reasons why definite steps should be taken without delay. All at once it seemed to become clear to everybody that the tramp is not a harmless joke, but a serious problem, and both the public and press seemed to make up their minds suddenly that something ought to be done.

The members of the conference were of this opinion also. On the day after Mr. Lewis presented his paper, a meeting was called for the purpose of considering the feasibility of inaugurating an anti-tramp movement throughout the United States. The result was the appointment of a committee to organize a permanent body to be known as the National Vagrancy Committee to carry on a consistent and persistent war-

fare against vagrancy all over the country.

This committee was made up of some of the foremost social workers in America. William Rhinelander Stewart, president of the New York State Board of Charities, was made chairman, and Mr. Lewis secretary. The other appointees were Miss Alice L. Higgins, general secretary of the Boston Associated Charities; David B. Tilley, a member of the Massachusetts State Board of Charities; H. K. Estabrook, a member of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity and supervisor of the Philadelphia Wayfarers' Lodges; Amos W. Butler, president of this year's conference and secretary of the Indiana State Board of Charities, and Raymond Robbins, formerly superintendent of the Municipal Lodging House in Chicago. Representatives of some of the most important lines in the country were present at the conference and promised the committee the hearty support of the railroads.

The committee has been quietly at work ever since and has now not only sketched out the general plan of organization but has outlined a definite policy for the work. In the first respect it will be analogous to the National Child Labor Committee. Sub-committees will be established in every State and headquarters opened in all the large cities. Affiliation will be sought with the leading charitable and reform associations, and the support of public officials and prominent and influential private individuals will be solicited.

MAKING THE TRAMP PAY AS HE GOES.

In policy, however, the National Vagrancy Committee will be the direct antithesis of its prototype. The older body exists for the purpose of protecting the weak from work, the new one has been organized for the purpose of impelling the strong toward work. All its activities will be directed to the end of making it harder and more uncomfortable to be a loafer than to be a worker.

In pursuance of this ideal the society will attempt to close up every avenue through which a man can get a living out of society without giving to society anything in return. It will send out literature revealing the injudiciousness of the "poke-out" and the "touch," urging housewives to resist all appeals for kitchen-door aid, and requesting men to adopt an invincible policy of deafness to the hard-luck stories of street beggars. It will attempt to dissipate the sentimental esteem of the public for bread-lines,

coffee-wagons, and free bed and meal tickets by demonstrating that these things, instead of helping the honest poor, only minister to the vices of the dead-beat.

It will seek to secure the enactment and enforcement of legislation forbidding the use of police stations as lodgings and of the parks and city squares as lounging places for habitual vagrants. It will wage an unrelenting warfare against cheap lodging-houses that do not conform to a high standard of cleanliness and decency, and which, therefore, do not charge a relatively high price for their accommodations. Missions and other charitable organizations will be urged to exact a certain amount of work for all the aid that they give. Civil authorities will be asked to provide heavy labor in jails for all prisoners convicted of vagrancy, and to maintain mendicancy officers in plain clothes to arrest street beggars. Most important of all, every effort will be brought to bear upon railroad officials to secure the adequate policing of their rights of way, and upon municipal, county, and State authorities to inaugurate a policy of active and hearty co-operation with the railroad police in arresting and convicting trespassers. In short, the program provides that there shall be left no place where the homeless wanderer can lay his head, no avenue through which he can get a meal and no way in which he can travel, without paying for the privilege.

WHAT MASSACHUSETTS HAS DONE.

Many of the measures proposed have already been shown to be both practical and effective by the commonwealth of Massachusetts. The Massachusetts law now provides that vagrants confined in jails shall be kept at hard labor; that vagrants lodged in almshouses shall be segregated from paupers; that municipal lodging-houses shall require a certain amount of labor in exchange for meals and lodgings, and that common lodging-houses shall be beyond the control of their guests and shall be required to meet the approval of the board of health.

The regulations for lodging-houses that were adopted recently by the Massachusetts State Board of Health go a step beyond the set drawn up by Dr. Darlington for the control of the "Bowery joints" in New York. Dr. Darlington's lodging-house rules provided that bathtubs should be merely provided, but the Massachusetts law requires that they shall be used. Also to Dr. Dar-

lington's comparatively modest exaction that clean linen shall be placed on each bed every night, the Massachusetts fathers have added the demand that each guest shall be furnished with a clean night-shirt,—and required to wear it.

STIFFENING LIMBER BACKBONE.

To those persons who object to this policy on the ground that it will infringe upon the precious right of the individual to be idle, the leaders of the movement merely reply that no man has a right to be idle at the expense of honest men who work,—particularly when by his idling he spreads mental and physical disease among the industrious. To those who cry out that the scheme is cruel and heartless and will work hardship to the worthy poor, they reply that it will never touch the worthy poor. To the men whom it will reach, however, they declare that it will act as a truer kindness than all the bread-lines and bed-tickets in the world. In support of this contention they point out the fact that the chief cause that makes a man a vagrant is a certain lack of backbone that renders him practically incapable of managing his own life unless he is forced to do so. If a man of this character finds that he can get through life without making an exertion to support himself he will permit every one of his faculties to atrophy for want of use. If, however, he is met at every hand by an inexorable edict that he must work if he would eat, he will put forth just enough effort to encompass his desire and, in doing so, he will begin to develop into an efficient man.

MUNICIPAL LODGING-HOUSES.

But the policy of the movement does not stop with throwing the vagrant upon his own resources. In addition to the repressive measures which it recommends it suggests definite lines of constructive work. While laboring to close up every avenue by which a man can drift down hill, the leaders of the movement will try to open every road by which he can climb upward. They will urge every city, before beginning its attack upon the bread-line and the bed-ticket, to establish a clean and comfortable municipal lodging-house where any man, finding himself without food or shelter or the means of procuring them, can go and get both in exchange for an amount of work proportioned not so much to his drains upon the institution as to his physical ability.

In connection with these lodging-houses they would have free employment bureaus, where the employable men could be provided with jobs; hospitals for defectives and inebriates, where the unemployable who have not yet become incurable could be restored to working efficiency; compulsory labor colonies, where incorrigible drones could be given a wholesome stimulus toward useful activity and an incentive to learn a trade, and decent refuges where the hopeless wrecks of humanity could be humanely housed and could, at the same time, be prevented from spreading moral or physical disease.

In its entirety the design of the organization is not only to protect society from the vagrant class, but to restore the individual vagrant to the ranks of the self-supporting.

The leaders of the movement believe that this can be done if proper means are provided for getting hold of the novice. Of the total number of men who have come to the Joint Application Bureau for aid within the last five years,—who are nearly all actual or potential vagrants,—Mr. Lewis estimates that about 80 per cent. are between the ages of twenty and fifty,—the best working years of a man's life,—and that no less than 54 per cent. are of American birth.

The leaders of the movement think that these men are worth saving for their own sakes, and it is to this end, as well as for the purpose of protecting society from a serious and growing evil, that the National Vagrancy Committee has come into being.

HOW POUGHKEEPSIE DEALS WITH TRAMPS.

WHAT may be accomplished by following the recommendations of the National Vagrancy Committee, as outlined in the preceding article, has been shown by the little city of Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

Logically, Poughkeepsie ought to be infested with tramps. It is the only coaling station between New York and Albany, and therefore all the trains have to draw up there to take on fuel. Furthermore, it is the only stop made by the express trains between those two points. As train crews invariably take advantage of such stops to search their cars for tramps, Poughkeepsie is an ideal place for a hobo traveling out of New York to drop off and "throw his feet" for his night's lodging or his next day's supplies.

Up to seven years ago the members of the wandering fraternity gave incessant demonstration of their keen appreciation of this chance. Begging and petty thievery were rampant, and burglaries and safe-blowings were of common occurrence. In the year 1900, however, the municipal authorities appointed as chief of police Charles J. McCabe, who had risen from patrolman to the rank of sergeant, but who had been a brakeman on the New York Central before he joined the police force.

Having, as a trainman, spent a great part of his time for several years of his life in matching his wits against those of the men on the road, the new chief had no illusions whatever about the vagrant class. Therefore

almost his first official act was to take measures to prevent tramps from continuing to use Poughkeepsie as a camp and forage ground.

At this time from twenty to thirty men were being accommodated with lodgings in the Poughkeepsie police station every night,—and no questions asked. Chief McCabe started in to ask questions. Every man who presented himself at the station-house for a lodging was received hospitably,—and required to give an account of himself. If the man refused to do so the chief intimated that Poughkeepsie would continue to extend its hospitality to him until he did. If he responded, the chief listened sympathetically and then proceeded to lock him up until his story could be verified or disproved.

Once having got into the station no would-be lodger got out until Chief McCabe was in possession of full details as to his identity and past history. If the chief found himself unable to extract the information he wanted by questioning, he photographed his guest and sent the picture to other police chiefs throughout the country. In this way he not only found out what he wanted to know as a rule, but he was enabled to restore many badly "wanted" persons to the anxious authorities of other communities. He also instituted the custom of searching applicants for lodgings,—a practice which brought to light a great deal of incriminating evidence

in the way of burglars' tools, concealed weapons, and stolen goods, thus revealing the fact that many of the self-invited guests of the city were dangerous criminals.

The result was that the popularity of the Poughkeepsie police station as a lodging-house fell off amazingly. However, as the crimes attributable to vagrants did not show a corresponding decrease, Chief McCabe drew the inference that the "hoboes" had merely transferred their patronage to the low 5 and 10-cent lodging-houses along the tracks. He began then to make frequent raids on these places and to carry off transient lodgers to the police station, where he required them to make known their exact business in the city.

At the same time he instructed all roundsmen and patrolmen to keep a close watch on the streets for beggars, peddlers without licenses, and strangers without visible means of support, as well as to arrest on sight every illegal car-rider caught getting on or off the trains or hanging about the tracks.

News of these high-handed ways were evidently passed quickly "down the line" to all members of the profession. At any rate, Poughkeepsie was given "the double cross." Burglaries and safe-blowing fell off astonishingly, and begging and petty thievery practically ceased.

The change is strikingly illustrated by the police records. Previous to 1900 the number of vagrants lodged at the police station averaged 4100 a year. Since 1900 they have averaged 860 a year. Previous to 1900 the number of burglaries committed in the city averaged from fifty to sixty a year. Since 1900 they have averaged from two to three a year. The average annual property loss since 1900 has been less than \$500.

But this is not all that has been accomplished by Chief McCabe's anti-vagrancy campaign. It has not only saved thousands of dollars to the city of Poughkeepsie, but it has saved an incalculable sum to society in general. In the seven years that he has been the head of the police force the chief has caught and sent home more than 1000 boys, most of whom would otherwise, in all likelihood, have become parasites upon society, and many of whom might have developed into criminals.

It is common knowledge to police officers that a "kid" is a valuable asset to all classes of vagabonds. The traveling safe-blowers and station-robbers, known as "yeggmen," can use small boys to advantage in locating means of entrance and in gathering up other

useful information, while to the "panhandlers" they are invaluable for working the "sympathy racket" upon people who would meet the appeal of a grown man with contempt or abuse.

During his life as brakeman Chief McCabe had seen hundreds of little boys,—many of them not more than eight years old,—kicked off trains to fall into the hands of these vampires or not, just as chance might dictate. To the average trainman a boy car-rider is merely a "tough kid" for whom the method of treatment is prescribed. But young McCabe saw that a large number of these boys were just normally active youngsters who had "jumped" a train as they would "hitch onto" a milk wagon, and had been carried beyond the point where they had intended to drop off; or else over-imaginative readers of dime novels who had started West to find some place where interesting things still happen. He realized how important it was that these boys should be kept from becoming the tools of criminals and constitutional loafers, but until he became chief of police he saw no way of doing anything. Then, however, he announced that if he could help it no runaway boy should take the downward path for want of a restraining hand at Poughkeepsie,—the point at which so many youngsters had formerly started on a hobo's career.

To this end he ordered his men never to let a strange boy in town go unapprehended, but to arrest every youngster getting on or off the trains or wandering about the city, and to bring him to the police station. There the chief talked kindly to the lad, won his confidence, got his name and address, and made him comfortable in the matron's quarters while efforts were made to get in touch with his parents or guardians. Once in the chief's clutches no boy leaves the police station at Poughkeepsie except in convoy of a big policeman to take boat or train for home.

So far Chief McCabe's work has necessarily been repressive rather than constructive, owing to the fact that the city has no adequate means of taking care of and giving to the well-meaning wayfarer the lift that would very probably put him on his feet. In the meantime, he is carrying out a policy which keeps at least one town free of social parasites. Even though, at the present time, this may imply an additional burden upon other towns, it sets an example, which, if followed, would mean the elimination of the vagrant class.

CHINA AND THE LANGUAGE QUESTION.

BY HOWARD SWAN.

(Sometime professor in the Imperial College, Peking, China.)

[The transliteration of one language into another radically different in alphabet and syllabification is always difficult. The transliteration of Chinese into words formed with the European alphabet is especially so. Several American scholars of Chinese have highly approved Professor Swan's ideas and explanation of the necessity and possible methods of Chinese phonetization as set forth in the following article. Their accuracy and finality are, of course, a matter of opinion with native as well as western scholars of the Chinese language.—THE EDITOR.]

THE Far Eastern problem is and always has been, What is the future of China? To the Chinese themselves the problem is more complicated than it appears to other nations; but it is one principally of government, of education, and of language. Of government first; because, without a good government there cannot be state-supported schools and colleges. But if the question of schools and colleges is thus of grave importance, that of language is of still greater importance, as language is at the base of all education, and without a generally understood language no subject can be taught well.

"THERE IS NO CHINESE LANGUAGE."

It may surprise some to hear that there is no Chinese language! There are Chinese dialects; there is a series of Chinese ideographic characters corresponding in some degree to an alphabet; but there is, up to the present, no general Chinese language that all Chinamen can speak and understand. The nearest approach to it is the Peking Mandarin or *Gwaan-hwa* (Kuan-hwa),—"official talk,"—which has spread widely because the mandarins or government officials have first to reside in Peking, and carry that dialect from thence to every district. It is spoken generally, however, only in Peking, and in the hinterland of Shansi and other provinces directly behind, and by officials of other parts of China in their Yamens or courthouses.

There exists, further, a universal book language, which all the better educated Chinamen are taught; and in this the *Wên-li*, as it is called (pronounced Wôn-li, or won lee, meaning "literature language"), the imperial edicts and higher class books are written. All educated Chinese throughout the empire can read these, and it is this literature language, together with the Chinese ideographs, the gown, the periwig tail, and

certain habits and customs, that make the Chinese in a sense a united nation or empire. But there is as yet no general spoken language. Put twenty Chinamen in a room together to discuss any important governmental or commercial proposition, and, unless they all come from the one district, such as Shanghai, or Canton, or Peking, or unless they all know Pekinese, they cannot understand one another's speech. The idioms are different, pronunciation is different, intonation is different. Even simple greetings, such as "How do you do?" are entirely different as pronounced in Shanghai from the way they are said in Peking. In Soochow, for example, which is only eighty miles from Shanghai, it is different again. There it is sounded "*Axön che Vae?*" (Have you eaten rice?) In Peking it is pronounced "*Chela Faan mo yuwu?*" (Eaten rice, or not?),—in which Che (eat) and Vae or Faan (rice) are the same or similar, but the rest of the phrase is different. In Soochow the phrase "there is not" is "m p'," just two dumb consonants; in Peking it is "*mo'yuwu*" (like "more you").

In the writer's class of graduate students in the Imperial College, Peking, out of twenty-one students from various districts in the first class there were only five who could speak correct Pekinese. Others could make themselves imperfectly understood, but each spoke his own dialect, and two were absolutely incomprehensible to the rest. These two had therefore to wait until they had learned English to speak with the class, or at least until they had learned Pekinese, which is, without organized teaching, an almost equally difficult task. Another resource, peculiarly Chinese, is to take to writing, not only on pieces of paper and corners of desks, but on the palms of the hands, in the dust, or by gesture in the air; and by

long practice the Chinese are very quick at this written gesture language. This palm-writing is cumbrous, but fortunately nearly always successful when educated men come together.

WRITTEN CHINESE SPEECH A NOTATION OF IDEAS.

Chinese as written is not a language; it is a notation of ideas. Just as our mathematical, algebraical, musical, and chemical symbols are known all over our continents, though pronounced differently, so with the Chinese ideographs. These ideographs, or picture words, are recognized by all educated Chinese, and by the Japanese, Manchus, and Tibetans, the inhabitants of the Malay peninsula and other Chinese colonies. In all, some 600,000,000 (six hundred millions) of people, or very nearly half the entire population of the world, read some Chinese, though probably only 10 per cent. read and write it fluently. The Chinese written language is therefore a universal notation to a greater extent than any other language except English. Its construction is not unlike English, and its grammar is even more simple, being quite different in both these respects from the Japanese, which is one of the most difficult languages in the world to learn.

As can easily be seen, this lack of a general Chinese "tongue," or spoken language, precludes the possibility of public speech-making, and, indeed, leads to so many mistakes or possible misunderstandings, laying the speakers open to suspicion of sedition, that in China public meetings are usually altogether banned, or in such disfavor with the central government that private persons do not often care to run the risk. Capital punishment, with or without torture, and often without a trial, is still in force in parts of China, and the suggestive drawing of the edge of the hand across the throat several times successively, even in Peking, is a common gesture to indicate the fate of suspected and denounced persons and their whole families.

There are eighteen provinces in the Chinese Empire, each with its one or several dialects, so that the empire is really much like Europe was at the time of the Middle Ages, with the Chinese Emperor as Pope, and the land divided up in principalities. In Europe we have Italy, Roumania, Switzerland, France, Spain, Portugal, each with a variety of Latin, to say nothing of Britain, with its Gaelic, Welsh, and English, and the

Norse languages; while Greece and Russia still use the original Greek letters that Cadmus is supposed to have given the Phœnician merchants to facilitate their commerce. If there were no general knowledge of English, French, or German in Europe and America, but educated officials only had a speaking knowledge of Latin and a writing knowledge of Greek, this would fairly represent the state of China, which has some 400 dialects, with Peking mandarin as the general tongue corresponding to Latin, and the Wen-li corresponding somewhat with our use of Greek in learned works.

PRESSING NEED OF ONE LANGUAGE FOR THE EMPIRE.

What is clearly needed in China is a general spoken tongue, understood from one end of the empire to the other, and taught in schools and colleges as we teach English. This should be in graded lessons, with clear explanations, exact phonetics to represent pronunciation, and plenty of lively narrative and conversation, journalistic, classical, and poetic examples to be studied in the classrooms, along with historical and scientific works written in the spoken tongue, as in the West. By this teaching, and the continued influence of the railroads, there would soon spread over China a true Chinese tongue. It may be pointed out that within recent years modern Greek was consciously developed somewhat in this way, through the efforts of three enthusiastic and patriotic Greeks, who formulated a grammar on the French model, published millions of copies of ancient Greek classics, and allowed the people themselves to develop the modern Greek language as it is to-day.

So with the Pekinese pronunciation and idiom. Books could be written in the actual speech of the people, either in Chinese characters or in romanized letters, or both, instead of as now in a sort of abbreviated shorthand made up of abstract picture words, reading, as to sense, something like our own cablegrams, but written in ideographs.

To write Chinese it is necessary to learn at least 2000 signs. At least 4000 are necessary to read books with facility. To learn 300 of these is easy, 1000 is a task, 2000 is a terrible drudgery, and the second 2000 is almost an impossibility to any except lifelong students. The most that are in use is 7000, though of obsolete words there are 20,000 or 30,000 more of which Chinese encyclopedists have made collections.

CONSTRUCTION OF CHINESE IDEOGRAPHS.

A word or two as to the constitution of Chinese writing will make plainer the difficulties of this language to its own countrymen, as compared with the simple alphabetical nature of western tongues. In Chinese the written signs do not usually represent the sounds, but each represents a rough drawing of the actual thing or idea spoken about. For instance, we say tree, and write the sound, t, r, ee; but with the Chinaman the sound for tree is, say, *Shu* (shoo), but he does not write any sounds to show it is pronounced Sh, or u. He draws a picture of a tree with root, stem, and branches,

thus 木, which is pronounced Shu in some parts, though it may be quite different in another district. A man is indicated by drawing his two legs,

thus 人, and the word is pronounced variously, jin or djin, zhin, zhōn, rzhōn, rōn, or renn, and in some parts nyin or nyen. If a Chinaman wishes to write "sun," this he calls usually Taa-yaang, or great male-principle, but sometimes he uses another word which may be represented Rzhi, for sun; he writes this

日, which was originally the well-known symbol, ☉. So for moon he writes 月, which was, of course, a crescent, 月. The Chinese numerals run

一 二 三, much like ours, but horizontal. They are called yi (yee), oerh (er), saan (sun), and

so forth. The abstract or compound ideas are made up of a set of 214 root words or radicals and 800 phonetics, or guides to sound. The 214 radicals form the Chinese alphabet, and range from a single stroke to a complicated drawing of a bamboo with holes in it, written in seventeen strokes, meaning a "flute." The 214 are classifications rather than letters of an alphabet, and some signs,—such as man, mouth, hand, woman, heart,—are very useful in composition, standing for whole classes of objects or ideas.

Abstract words are made up of several of these. To illustrate: woman is, and child is 子; the combination 好 means "good, loving, kind." A woman under a roof means "peace"; a pig and a roof indicates the "family"; a mouth inside a door means "to ask a question," and so on,

endlessly. The most abstract word in Chinese is the word "virtue," or uprightness of character,—the basic virtue of the Confucian system. The following analysis will explain the composition of this interesting Chinese character, and give an insight into the construction of many others. First, the word "upright," as of a wall or house, is made up of the signs for ten, eyes, and straight,—meaning that what is seen by ten workmen and no fault found is upright. The signs for these are:

If we add the sign for footsteps of a man 十 四 丿 we show that it is walking upright 彳 that is meant; and the further sign 心 (with its drops of blood or arteries), shows that it is spiritual or heart-quality that is expressed.

Thus we get 彳 十 四 丿 心 which are written in one square sign, and become the classic symbol: 德 and this combination for virtue or uprightness is pronounced as a whole Dōa (almost like der or door without the r), though each of the smaller signs has a different pronunciation of its own.

EFFECT ON CHINESE LITERATURE.

With such a system as this it can be easily seen how slow any intellectual progress or means of literary communication must be; and the Chinese education, while it fosters concentration, memory, and application to study in a manner unknown to western peoples, is narrow and circumscribed, and apt to give rise to a feeling of intellectual superiority without sufficient cause, by the fact of a conquest over such a difficult means of communication, while a knowledge of reading and writing in western nations is the common property of every little child.

To be sure, from a philological point of view, when one gets used to the signs Chinese becomes a fascinating study, and is easy to read by eye, as each sign, when once learned, usually carries within it its true meaning and original idea. In such cases, one sees at a glance that the meaning of a sign has to do, for example, with trees, or stars, or metals, and so forth. On the other hand, some signs have now little connection with their original meaning, and many are extremely complicated. Chinese abounds in synonyms and hazy, ill-defined words, but sometimes this similarity has a useful result.

At the time of the Boxer troubles, when the imperial edict was sent out that on a certain date "all foreigners are to be exterminated," some friendly officials substituted a Chinese sign similar in looks but with the meaning "protected" instead of "exterminated" or "slaughtered," and this saved hundreds of lives in the friendly provinces.

A Chinaman reading aloud a public notice or edict can hardly be understood by his hearers if they do not see the writing. It must be read by the eye to be certain of the contents. Further, a man from a different province would read it aloud quite differently, and even then none could be sure of the meaning by hearing alone, unless it were couched in the idiom of the district, which is usually not done, as the common tongue of the people is despised for literary purposes, much as Italian was at the time of Dante, or ordinary Greek at the time of the writing of the Christian books. Consequently, books are written to be read by the eye. Ordinary language is not employed, but a highly artificial and stilted style has been developed. China wants a Cadmus, a St. John, and a Shakespeare,—the one to put its best and clearest dialect into phonetic writing; the second to teach the highest philosophical and moral truths in the simple words of common life; and the third to open the imagination and bring all into harmony in one grand plan of the ideal man and woman; while a fourth,—a Chinese Huxley,—is required to explain scientific truths in a simple and easily understood manner.

FORMS OF LITERARY EXPRESSION IN CHINA.

The Chinese have no lack of poetry of their own, much of it of a high degree of excellence, as can be seen by reading Professor Giles' volume on "Chinese Literature," in the World's Literature series. The drama is held in low esteem in China, and actors are regarded, with barbers, as being too low to admit into the colleges. The spread of the love for imaginative dramatic poetry may come about, as in other countries, by a translation into Chinese of Shakespeare's plays, or by the springing forth of a new Chinese poet writing in the common tongue. The common tongue bears on its waves the great vessels. In Japan the western styles have been taken up, and novels and poems written in ordinary language about everyday themes are now becoming common. The second desideratum can be satisfied by the translation of biographical,

historical, philosophical, and scientific works in the Peking educated speech, or Gwaan-hwa ("Kuan-hua"). But neither of these two can come at all usefully for the common people before one of the Chinese dialects is taken and acknowledged by the government as the standard and its pronunciation carefully put into phonetic spelling in a way to commend itself alike to the ear and to the eye. A great deal of work has been already done in putting western scientific books into Chinese characters, using either the official or literary language. But there still remains the difficulty of educating the common people, who cannot afford to give ten years of their life to learning the necessary characters.

From the foregoing it will be seen that much remains to be done before government and commerce can be carried on with the same facility with which western nations manage their affairs. In the western nations every boy can read and write easily at eight or ten years of age, and the whole of literature and science is thus thrown open to him by degrees with this key. But in China only a small proportion can "read characters," and a still smaller proportion read and write easily and correctly.

There are several ways in which the Chinese could remedy this: one by learning another language, as English or Esperanto. In Japan, English forms the second language, and the million of students who can now read English must have added very largely to the power of intercommunication of the Japanese nation, to say nothing of their knowledge of French and German, which is considerable, though far less than of English. But in China a better means would be to put their own simple language into phonetics. This can be done in several ways,—by a syllabary, with signs for separate syllables, as *ba*, *be*, *bo*, *bu*, and so on, as is done with the Japanese *Kana*. A more useful way, however, would be to use a carefully adjusted system of romanized spelling, using phonetic signs of the roman alphabet which all the other nations could easily read.

At present the Chinese themselves have no phonetic spelling, and no study of exact phonetics, or so little of it that it practically counts for naught. The Chinese idea of phonetics is to take one of their best-known characters,—let us say, for example, a character called in Pekinese *chu*,—and another pronounced *ping*; and by putting the two together (*chu-ping*) the first sound of the

first character is added to the last sound of the second character, so obtaining the result, "ching." This is found useful among the Chinese in cases of disputed pronunciation, or for indicating that of foreign words. Unfortunately, useful as it may appear at first trial, the Chinese pronounce their words so differently in different provinces that it is not possible to rely on this device. It is no exaggeration to say that in different parts of China what is in one province called *chu* in others may well be either *chu* or *ju*, *cho*, *jo*, *chowu*, *jowu*, *juwu*, or possibly *ngo*, *nga*, or even *waal*! Chinese phonetics are particularly fluidic. To the average Chinaman, even when educated, it makes little difference if you pronounce "International Law," or "International Gnow," or "International Raw,"—all will be understood, and he will use these interchangeably.

PHONETIC SYSTEMS NOW IN USE.

Among the foreign educators, missionaries, and diplomats in China there are several phonetic systems now used or being tried. Among these are the following: The early French romanized, now nearly obsolete; one or two German systems of greater or less complexity and weirdness; the English diplomatic romanized, known as Wade's system, which for want of something better has become almost universal, and the American missionary system, known as Mateer's; the Standard Romanized Pronunciation system (a compound and improvement of these latter two); M. Murray's numerical system, used chiefly for Braille printing for the blind, in which the 408 root Chinese sounds are given numbers and are indicated by a raised system of dots punched on paper in tiny squares; a Chinese syllabary based on the Japanese *Kana*; several new and wonderful Chinese systems, based on Chinese sign writing, and looking like Chinese (the schools and colleges are full of inventors of these wonderful systems); a method of Chinese shorthand, which is said to have great vogue, especially among women; and finally the International Phonetic System, worked out by the present writer, and taught by him in the Peking Imperial College. This is somewhat similar to, but more complete than, the international romanizing suggested by a Japanese missionary, and now used for their own language by the Japanese. The only three systems worthy of consideration, however, for the purpose of transcribing Chinese into some kind of a written language

comparable to English, French, or German, are Wade's (Mateer's is nearly the same), the Standard, and the International Phonetic.

It is not necessary to consider these systems in detail. We must constantly keep in mind, however, that for China to have the benefits of western science and for other nations to treat her as on a par with themselves she must have a constitution, an organized educational system, and for this, a national spoken language. To have the language become truly national she must somehow or other have phonetics properly studied and carefully taught in her schools, as a means to indicate the correct standard pronunciation.

A method of teaching Chinese either to Chinese themselves or to foreigners should include a course in Peking mandarin, as the official language. The pronunciation should be indicated phonetically either with Chinese signs or the Roman alphabet, or both. Preferably, the tones should be indicated if possible by additional letters or doubled signs within the body of the word, rather than be entirely omitted, or indicated by figures above the line, as in the Wade system. The recognized international phonetics as used in Japan should be used, but somewhat modified to give room to indicate the tones. The principle of this international system is: "English consonants and continental vowels." The Chinese language should not be regarded as monosyllabic, but those syllables which naturally run together in speaking should be run together in writing. The ideal should be to take the most distinct and important dialect, say Pekinese, and form a language which could be easily read by all who knew the Roman alphabet, so that whether American, British, Norse, French, German, Italian, or Japanese, all would be able to use and understand it.

Chinese is a language that now requires studying from five to ten years to learn at all usefully. One becomes skilful in it only after twenty years of hard work. With a phonetic system and a good method of arranging the common idioms of daily life, we should be able to speak Chinese fairly well in six months or a year.

With such a good phonetic system fully worked out for all the ordinary phrases and idioms of common life, some simple grammar and a dictionary of words on the same plan, it would be quite possible to put China on a level with other nations in the possession of an easily read and easily acquired means of

verbal intercommunication. This would be not only of great service to commercial and diplomatic circles throughout the world, but would prove of the very greatest advantage to philology and linguistics. China has something to teach, but its chest of treasures is as good as locked up, owing to the heaviness of the key, which only a giant in intellect or patience can turn. The Chinese have advanced in the past by their unique possession of a complete philosophy without superstition, and a universal notation of ideas,—two great desiderata which the German

philosopher Leibniz longed for, but in vain. The Chinese have kept their unity amid the clashings of empires, by the sole means of this notation; but they have also remained in semi-darkness while other nations advanced, by the continued use of a language which indicates ideas instead of pronunciation. To change is to progress. Progress is based on education. Education is based on language. The Chinese problem is a language problem, and if China herself and the other nations recognize this the "Eastern Window" will soon open for light.

THE NEED OF LAW REFORM IN CHINA.

BY CHARLES SUMNER LOBINGIER.

AN interesting phase of the many-sided progressive movement in the Chinese Empire is the undertaking to reform its judicial system. A commission charged with this duty is now at work, and during a recent visit to China the writer had the opportunity of meeting a member of this body, Mr. Y. L. Kuan,—whose official title is Secretary of the Ministry of Law,—and of learning from him some of its program.

THE EXAMPLE OF JAPAN.

In taking this step, as in many other respects, China is now following in the footsteps of Japan. One of the first innovations of the Mikado's government after its overthrow of the Shogunate was the establishment of a judiciary upon western lines. This was inaugurated as early as 1872, and its existence afforded one of the principal arguments whereby seventeen years later, but prematurely, many now believe, foreign powers were induced to relinquish their claims of extra-territorial jurisdiction in Japan.

The Sunrise Empire followed up this first reform with a series of sweeping changes in the laws themselves, resulting finally in the creation of an entirely new legal system selected from the best foreign sources. In 1881 a new criminal code (now about to be superseded) was put into force abolishing the severe and barbarous penalties which had been borrowed from the Chinese many centuries before. Codes of procedure, both criminal and civil, were promulgated in 1890, and about three years later a commercial and a civil code, both based upon German models.

The program of the Chinese law reform-

ers appears less extensive, though the results may be quite as effectual. The system of punishments has, indeed, already been considerably mitigated, largely through the efforts of Wu Ting-Fang, well known in America by reason of his long and efficient service as the Chinese representative at Washington. But it does not seem to be the purpose to change materially the system of private substantive law, and for this there appear to be excellent reasons.

THE CHINESE CODE.

It may not be generally known that China has an ancient and elaborate, not to say voluminous, code of written laws. In point of antiquity it is by far the oldest of all codes now in force. Only such instruments as the Decalogue or the Code of Hammurabi seem ancient beside it. If the Code of Justinian had been continuously operative since its promulgation it would still be youthful as compared with this Chinese product. Intrinsically it consists of some twenty-four volumes, in the literary language of the empire, and it not only covers the general field of substantive civil and criminal jurisprudence, but it also touches upon nearly every phase of human interest and duty; for the Chinese conception of law is broader than the Occidental and includes many subjects which western jurists would regard as belonging to the domain of ethics or etiquette.*

Independently of its contents the external character of this code affords a guaranty of

* Such, e.g., are the numerous injunctions of filial duty enforced by severe penalties, and the minute regulations concerning marriage and even engagements.

its permanence. It is said[†] to consist of the accumulated decrees of the emperors, dating back twenty centuries, collected, revised, and arranged in logical order, and is thus an application, upon an elaborate scale, of the system of adjudicated precedents which forms the foundation of our Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence. But in China the respect for precedent and written authority is much greater than with us. "A quotation from Confucius has settled many a quarrel, arbitrated many a dispute."[‡] The only class at all corresponding to our lawyers is that known as "searchers," whose business it is to find a precedent according to which a litigated question may be decided. With such notions thus deeply rooted, a code containing the precedents of ages and embodying the sum of Chinese juridical philosophy is not apt to be seriously disturbed even by the mighty upheaval now taking place in the Celestial Empire.

Nor is it clear that such a result would be desirable. The displacement of an indigenous, time-honored system of laws, even though defective, by one of alien origin, perhaps abstractly better, is a serious undertaking, and the results are likely to be disappointing. It is doubtful if the Japanese have succeeded in adapting their exotic, though smoothly phrased, codes to the spirit and understanding of the people. While in Japan recently the writer was informed, upon good authority, that the judges themselves are often at a loss to understand these codes and that it is not uncommon for them, confidentially, to seek the assistance of foreign lawyers in cases of doubtful interpretation.

In China, however, if we may believe impartial critics, not even theoretical superiority of foreign systems can be urged in favor of displacing the ancient national code. The author last quoted says that the Chinese laws "as a whole are mild and humane, far superior to those found in any other Asiatic country." And the translator of the code, Sir George Stanton, declared: "When we turn from the ravings of the Zend-Avesta or the Puranas to the tone of sense and business in this Chinese collection, it is like passing from darkness to light, from the dwellings of dotage to the exercise of an improved understanding; and redundant and minute as these laws are, in many particulars, we scarcely know a European code that is at once so copious and so consistent, or is nearly so freed from intricacy, bigotry, and fiction."

REFORM IN ADMINISTRATION NEEDED.

Nevertheless, the Chinese code is one of substantive law only,—i. e., it prescribes rights and duties, but does not, it is said, contain any provisions governing procedure or the methods of enforcing rights. Moreover, there seem to be no distinctively judicial officers in China; the governmental system has come down unchanged from a time when the various classes of functions had not been differentiated, and one set of officials might perform any sort of duty. To-day the court of lowest grade is the Yamen of the district magistrate, who, besides being the all-around administrative officer of his locality, hears causes of any character. From his decision an appeal may be taken to the prefect, the provincial magistrate, the viceroy, and formerly to the censorate in Peking, though a court of cassation has now been established there.

As the rules require the decision of every inferior tribunal to be reviewed by a higher one, it will be seen that the simplest piece of litigation is subject to long and vexatious delays, while in no case can it receive the attention of a class of skilled men specially trained for the task of administering justice according to law. It is to the removal of such patent and inherent defects that the reformatory commission is now devoting its labors. The plan is to establish a real judiciary, whose functions are to be separate and distinct from those of any other branch; its members to be selected only from those especially equipped for its duties, and its procedure to be regulated by uniform and recognized rules, instead of being left to the discretion of each individual magistrate. Recognizing, no doubt, the hugeness as well as the importance of the task and the undesirability of hasty action, the government in its imperial edict providing for the change allows fifteen years for the establishment of the new system. With this period at their disposal and with the experience of Japan to guide them, the Chinese commissioners ought to be able to avoid the errors which have caused such dissatisfaction on the part of aliens residing in the former country. For the good of China, not less than of the stranger within her gates, it is to be hoped that her reformers in achieving their task may realize that the due and speedy dispensing of justice to foreigners as well as to the subject is the first concern of the state, a requisite to lasting commercial prosperity, and the surest passport to the confidence of outside nations.

[†] Holcombe, "The Real Chinaman," pp. 30, 195.

[‡] *Ib.*, p. 45.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE MECHANICAL HANDLING OF THE WORLD'S STOCK OF GOLD.

MORE than \$1,000,000 per diem is the value of the supply of gold to the world, yet it is so mechanically managed that it fails to subserve fully the tremendous interests which depend on it. In the various treasuries, banks, and other depositories of the commercial world there is to-day a stock of gold coin and bullion equal in value to about \$3,300,000,000. Late in 1907 the United States Treasury held of this aggregate \$916,000,000, Bank of France \$541,000,000, State Bank of Russia 508,000,000, Bank of Austro-Hungary \$229,000,000, Bank of Italy \$167,000,000, Bank of England \$159,000,000, Imperial Bank of Germany \$146,000,000, Bank of Spain, \$78,000,000, Bank of the Netherlands \$38,000,000, Bank of Naples \$35,000,000, Bank of Scotland \$26,000,000, National Bank of Denmark \$24,000,000, National Bank of Belgium \$21,000,000, Royal Bank of Sweden \$21,000,000, National Bank of Roumania \$20,000,000, Bank of Ireland \$16,000,000, Switzerland banks of issue, \$13,000,000, National Bank of Switzerland \$12,000,000, German local banks \$11,000,000, Bank of Sicily \$9,500,000, Bank of Norway \$9,000,000, Bank of Bulgaria \$6,000,000, Bank of Portugal \$5,500,000, Bank of Finland \$5,500,000, National Bank of Servia \$3,000,000, National Bank of Greece \$500,000, and in other depositories in this country, Canada, Mexico, Central and South America, the Colonies, Turkey, Egypt, India, Japan, and China there was, approximately, \$280,000,000 additional.

This immense stock of gold is popularly supposed to flow whither exchange demands; but this is a delusion, and it is attached by numerous and invisible ligatures to the countries which secure possession of it. Indeed, it is so tied up that a demand from one country to another, even in exchange for securities or commodities offered at a depreciation of from 25 to 30 per cent., is responded to with the greatest reluctance, difficulty, and delay. The events of our recent crisis demonstrated the difficulty of withdrawing from Europe to this country an

amount of gold equivalent to less than a single year's production of our mines alone. This is, in part, because gold enters into the arts and the coinages of the commercial world as soon as it is produced.

As the case stands to-day every state requires, and must have, command of the means to liquidate its paper issues in gold, but there is no necessity herein for selfish accumulation, rendering it difficult for neighboring states to obtain it when required by the exigencies of legitimate commerce, without being obliged to sell securities and products at bankruptcy prices, says Mr. Alex. Del Mar in the *Engineering Magazine* for January. Accordingly, he suggests a project to remedy this embarrassing condition, which he describes as "purely mechanical":

It is to mobilize the entire stock of gold held by the contracting states, by means of issuing, against such stock, certificates of deposit, which shall be made legal tenders in all of the contracting states, except at the treasury of the state of issue. Each state shall substitute such certificates in place of the gold for all purposes for which the gold is now employed, and shall undertake to pay them on demand. The security afforded by such certificates would be just as good as,—nay, even better than,—that of the gold itself. The expense entailed and time lost in conveying the metal to and fro across the ocean and of recoining it would be avoided; and in case of urgent demand from either side, or as between the first-class powers, the certificates would respond to the demands of commerce and of exchange with a celerity and certainty that cannot be imparted to the metal itself.

That this could be accomplished he points out that states have frequently admitted into their monetary circulation, with full legal-tender power, the coins of other states. For instance: Spanish coins were accepted in this country, Portuguese in England, and English in Portugal. The Latin Monetary Union in 1866, between France, Belgium, Switzerland, and Italy, later including the Papal States, Greece, and Roumania, and the Scandinavian Union,—Denmark, Norway, and Sweden,—are illustrations of inter-state agreements for uniform coinage recognition. The international postal union and money

order system deals in credits amounting to hundreds of millions per annum. "Why not," says he, "a system of international legal-tender certificates backed by deposits of gold coin, to the full amount of their issue, but, unlike the coin, full legal-tenders in each and all of the contracting states? When wanted at home, as a basis for other issues, they could be locked up in the treasury; when wanted abroad they could be used at once, without expense of carriage or recoinage."

Three objections, he concedes, may be urged: Where shall the stock be deposited? Shall the contract be observed in case of hostilities? How may different coinage denominations be regulated? He replies, in order, thus: Let each state keep its own stock

and let the commissioners of all the contracting states countersign and register the certificates of each state. Since the legal-tender quality depends on more than two belligerent states, and would be regulated by the convention obligatory in all, no danger need be apprehended from the second query; and a scale which enables large sums in pounds-sterling, francs, marks, florins, rubles, and dollars to be expressed in national integers of equivalent gold weights exists to solve the denominational apprehension. Hence, "the plan herein outlined would virtually provide a Bank of the World; and its promise of influence in securing the peace of that world should be great enough to sweep away any objections to its adoption that may be raised by either class interest or diplomatic intrigue."

IN THE SERVICE OF UNCLE SAM.

ATTRACTION as is the civil service and alluring as is an official position at Washington to most young men, the delights of serving the Government at its principal seat are not unalloyed with drawbacks and disappointments. A former ten-dollar-a-week clerk in a country lawyer's office, who succeeded to a clerkship at \$900 a year in Washington under civil-service regulations, found his position by no means a bed of roses.

Describing his experiences in the *National Magazine* for December, Mr. H. C. Gauss says that nine o'clock each morning saw the commencement of this public servant's labors. With the exception of half-an-hour lunch interval he worked until 4:30 p. m. daily, principally taking dictation from an older clerk. His salary was paid in two instalments, half on the 15th and the remainder on the 30th. Thirty dollars was the minimum for board and room; \$5 for luncheon; \$3 for car-fare, and laundry and sundries consumed so much of the balance that he was eagerly awaiting the second month's pay-day. After six months he congratulated himself if pay-day found him with cash on hand.

His grade was the lowest. Next to it was the thousand-dollar division; above that the twelve-hundred-dollar class; then the sixteen-hundred and eighteen-hundred dollar variety, next to the chief clerk of division. Over that functionary was the chief clerk of the bureau, subordinate only to the chief clerk of the department. Efficiency in work is a lever for promotion assisted by forcible

"kicking." This the incumbent quickly discovered. The thousand-dollar grade was a gathering of all sorts: those who could get no higher and those who had been reduced from higher grades. The lawyer's clerk emerged from that environment, however, and in the process discovered that "efficiency" workings are taken in a Pickwickian sense and are construed in an esoteric sense by that patient personage, the appointment clerk, who reads them through a pair of spectacles entirely his own, and who is, in the main, correct in his translation of the symbols. He also discovered that the man who hides his light under a bushel runs no danger of being unearthed.

At the twelve-hundred-dollar stage he concluded that his limit was reached and that he was idle a good deal of the time. Hence, he studied law, and, on admission to the bar, made a good connection with the lawyer who had first employed him. On his retirement he summed up his experience of civil service as follows:

There are not many good positions in government employment accessible from the classified service.

There are also many bright young men constantly striving for these places, and the large side of the ratio is on that of the strivers.

The best positions in life attainable through the classified service are those in outside employment, preparation for which is made possible by the conditions of government work.

Securing employment in the classified service is largely a matter of chance as between a given number of persons of probably similar qualifications; but the chance offers the opportunity of hitting upon individuals well adapted for the work. Any rigid system would fill the departments with clerks who would conform to the pattern of the system, which in turn would reflect its creator, so that the clerks would be very much of one kind.

Very much of the new material is impressionable, and is quickly modified and molded.

In promotion, the personal equation has its influence. The academic system of marking for efficiency is absurd. Modified by those who have to deal with its results, it works with a reasonable amount of justice, though with inevitable cases of individual hardship.

The pathos of the service is the absence of

expectation of a satisfactory outcome. While there is continuous employment at good pay during the productive years, the intangible surplus of friends and associations does not accumulate as in outside life.

The problem of disposing of old and disabled clerks cannot be settled by opposing a civil-pension list. It is settled now and could be administered at less expense if given its proper name.

Comparative efficiency cannot be ascertained until a standard of efficiency has been established. No one knows whether the Government work is being efficiently done. The most one can say is that it is being done.

Readers of this article by Mr. Gauss will be able the better to appreciate the work of the Keep Commission, described on page 190 of this number of the REVIEW.

THE AXIS OF EUROPEAN POLICY,—THE BAGDAD RAILWAY.

THE culminating point of German policy in the Near East is, says M. René Pinon in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the construction of the Bagdad railway. The French reviews have recently been devoting considerable attention to this question, and M. Pinon discusses in great detail the relations of Germany and Turkey. He analyzes German methods very carefully. He points out that the most important element in German preponderance in the Near East is the cordial relations existing between the Kaiser and the Sultan. Therein lies both its greatest strength and its weakness.

The German banks are the real inspirers of German economic and colonial expansion. The maxim of the German financier is that the bank ought to precede commerce in order to facilitate business transactions and organize credit. While German banks have been multiplying in the East, Berlin and Constantinople have been linked together by telegraph, and the German hope to extend telegraphic communications by the Bagdad railway to Bagdad and the Persian Gulf and thence to the Dutch Indies. But Germany places even more reliance upon her maritime organization, and, in addition to the conquest of the Mediterranean, her object is to found agencies in the Turkish ports, the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean. All these means, however, are but the avenues leading up to the construction of the Bagdad railway. Hitherto the great international routes have surrounded the Ottoman Empire without penetrating into its interior. The creation of a network of railways in Anatolia and the Bagdad railway con-

cession has marked a veritable epoch in the economic history of the East.

The resurrection of Asiatic Turkey is so gigantic an enterprise that it cannot be the achievement of one nation alone. M. Pinon strongly advocates an *entente* between Germany and France in the Levant. The greater the task, he says, the more dangerous the possibility of disputes, the more need there is for *ententes*.

THE RAILROAD A DANGER POINT.

M. Francis Delaisi's article on the Bagdad railway in *La Revue* may be read in connection with the above article. He recapitulates the history of the Bagdad railway scheme, and the difficulties Germany has had to contend with down to the summer of the present year, when the 3 per cent. increase of the Turkish Customs dues was instituted to assure the Turkish guarantee for the railway.

The railway is to make Bagdad five hours instead of fifty-five days distant from Constantinople, and it will enable the Turks to convey troops rapidly to their most distant frontiers. In short, it will consolidate the Ottoman Empire. It will accelerate the present route to India, and the Suez Canal will lose much of its commercial importance. Naturally the Germans wished to retain for themselves all the glory of the scheme,—and the profits; but England, France and Russia being opposer to such a monopoly, the railway for the last four years has been the axis of European policy. Times have changed since the railway was first pro-

jected. France is no longer ready to offer her capital unconditionally, and the powers insist on the railway being an international affair.

Why the Kaiser Must Have His Bagdad.

Writing on the Kaiser's visit to England, the editor of the *Revue de Paris* (M. Victor Bérard) assumes that the question of the Bagdad railway must have been one of the chief topics discussed at Windsor. For seventeen years this question has dominated the relations between London and Berlin, and the construction of the railway has always been one of the cherished objects of the Kaiser's ambition. Now that the marshalship of the world is no longer in his hands he is more than ever in need of a victory, and

M. Bérard suggests that neither England nor Europe will gain by not recognizing this fact. He points out a method by which he believes the conflicting interests of England and Germany might be reconciled. He would allow the Germans to build the railway as far as Bassorah, an arrangement which would not hinder English boats ascending the Tigris as far as Bagdad. As compensation for the German railway on the Euphrates, the English should ask for an extension of the privileges of the Lynch Company on the Tigris, and they would find that neither their political influence at Bagdad nor their commercial advantages would be reduced in any way.

THE FIGHTING VALUE OF THE FRENCH ARMY.

GENERAL LANGLOIS, of the staff of the French army, contributes to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (Paris), a paper in which he contrasts the French army of to-day with that of Germany, a study the conclusions of which go to show that if France were to meet her traditional foe in the field at the present time, her fate could hardly be different from that which befell her in 1870. The eventuality of a war, he declares, is not less present now than in the past, and a consideration of our situation as against that of the German army is not without its own sinister interest. Says the general:

Since the law of March, 1905, France has been in a position very inferior to that of Germany, from the point of view of the number of combatants. Exactly, therefore, what would happen in the case of war may be here shown. It is highly probable that hostilities would begin without any formal declaration whatever, perhaps unexpectedly, and in the course of a period of political tension. Germany alone is capable of assuming the offensive in so brutal a manner, since her Emperor has decided that he alone shall be the arbiter of war and peace. In France, war can only be declared by a decree of the Constitutional Parliament, even in response to an act of aggression. Consequently an initial delay must arise in the matter of mobilizing the French army,—at least a delay of twenty-four hours, if the Chambers be in session; if not a more protracted one. This would undoubtedly allow Germany to harass in a very serious way our early operations, and to give battle under conditions peculiarly advantageous to herself. Her first movement would be directed upon French soil, and a series of aggressive actions must take place, against which the present defensive forces maintained on the frontiers, far below their normal figures, it is

clear, would be of little avail. In the more important operations which must succeed, the position of the French army, according to the schedule, is the following: to the fifty-six squadrons, sixty-five sabres strong, the German army could oppose, in the first pitched battle, 114 squadrons, 130 sabres strong, or 14,820 German horsemen against 3640 of the French army. There is, moreover, our admitted inferiority in artillery to be calculated. Such being the case, the dangers of assuming a sudden offensive, disappear entirely in the case of the Germans. The French, in the initial stages, at least (and reverses in the beginning have an incalculable effect on the *morale* of French troops, particularly), would be practically at the mercy of the invading army.

Nevertheless, the General maintains that in respect of individual worth, the French army is incontestably superior to the German. The French soldier, he says, is naturally disciplined when properly led. By the very force of his self-respect the French trooper is capable of superhuman efforts. His genius for war, moreover, a quality lacking in the Teuton, renders him, in campaign, adaptable to all manner of contingencies, particularly in modern warfare, in which personal initiative is ever growing, and which was unknown almost altogether in the days of "close order" operations.

Contrary to what is generally thought, says General Langlois, there is now more than ever an opportunity for the private soldier to show his mettle, to prove his capacity for initiative, and thus to bring himself to the notice of his superiors. This is what is known as the fighting value of the soldier. The collective moral value of an army is an entirely different thing, and, un-

fortunately, according to General Langlois, the policy has for some time past prevailed in France of lowering the prestige of the army and exalting officialism.

The *morale* of the French army and its former spirit and verve can only be restored by a complete overhauling of the whole military system. Justice in the promotion of officers is almost a farce. Military or soldierly merit is recognized only according to backstair princi-

ples and interest. The consequence is that the officers of regiments are for the greater part divided against each other; that this lack of *esprit de corps* has its effect upon the troops who perfunctorily, if not with perfect disgust, approach and perform their military duties; and, finally, that there is, as the logic of the whole situation, a general fear prevalent in the army that a meeting with the Germans on the field of arms would mean but a repetition of the tragic episodes of 1870.

THE JAPANESE, CANADA, AND SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER characterizing Canada as "one of those neighboring lands of vast but only partly peopled spaces where the subjects of the Mikado may take lessons in western civilization, earn large incomes, and establish profitable industries pending their return to a life of ease in their native land," M. Louis Aubert, writing in the *Revue de Paris*, says:

The measures taken by the Dominion of Canada in regard to Chinese have guaranteed the Japanese against the only competition they could not have mastered. Since January 1, 1904, the per capita tax on Chinese immigration has been \$500. Since then the Canadians appear to be increasing their precautions. A recent law forbids the employment of Chinese labor in workshops and factories. They may be employed as domestic servants, they are permitted to work in canning factories, but are not given licenses to fish.

The activities of the Japanese in Canada are quite different. Those who are in a servant's capacity are either stewards or hotel employees. They work chiefly, however, in the fields, in the forests as wood-cutters, in sawmills, and on the roads. They are permitted to take out naturalization papers, and after the legal term of residence may obtain licenses to fish and act as sailors. Indeed, almost a third of the fishermen to-day in Canada are Japanese.

The Chinese being barred, the Japanese profit by the demand for cheap labor on the sparsely peopled plains, where the syndicate white men demand too high prices for their work. Since California halted the Japanese these people have poured into Canada in increasing numbers. Until ten years ago the Chinese monopolized all the fishing in the Fraser River; now the Japanese have it all. A Japanese economist, Kozaki Hirokichi, who visited Canada some years ago, recently wrote in a journal of Tokio (in February, 1906): "The Japanese fishermen who earn the least make \$300 per season; some earn as high as \$3000."

After the demonstrations in British Columbia, some months ago, the provincial Legis-

lature passed a bill increasing the entrance tax on Japanese immigrants to \$500. Three times this measure was insisted upon by the province, but each time the Dominion Government opposed the bill. Commenting on this, one of the Vancouver newspapers recently remarked: "We must resort to other tactics; we must convert the rest of Canada to the opinion of Columbia."

After reviewing the anti-Japanese sentiment on the Pacific Coast of the United States, the writer in the French review draws a novel inference from the departure of our fleet for the Pacific Ocean. He says:

The United States is maintaining, renewing, and developing her Atlantic fleet to keep pace with European ambitions covering Central America and South America. She is also, however, gradually turning her back on Europe, so that she may see with her eyes what Japan is doing across the Pacific. By the good will of Europe the Monroe Doctrine is to be respected on the Atlantic front while the American fleet is in the Pacific. In this enterprise the United States wisely trusts to the wisdom and good feeling of the Latin republics. The wisdom of this confidence is evident when it is remembered that with the fleet in the Pacific there is no club to bring Cuba, San Domingo, and Venezuela to terms.

The question of the Far East, says M. Aubert, will develop the Monroe Doctrine.

The immigration of the Japanese, their colonization all the way down the coast of the Pacific Ocean from Canada to Chile, and their attempts to form on the Western Hemisphere many *Shin-Nippons* (New Japans) are now menacing the United States, not only in California, but in every country of the Western Hemisphere. If it can be imagined that for ulterior motives of their own some of the South American republics might count on Japanese assistance, it is quite evident that when Japanese patriotism and Japanese energy have made themselves felt in the South American republics, as they have already made themselves felt in California and in British Columbia, the anti-Japanese spirit may awaken a real sentiment of pan-American solidarity.

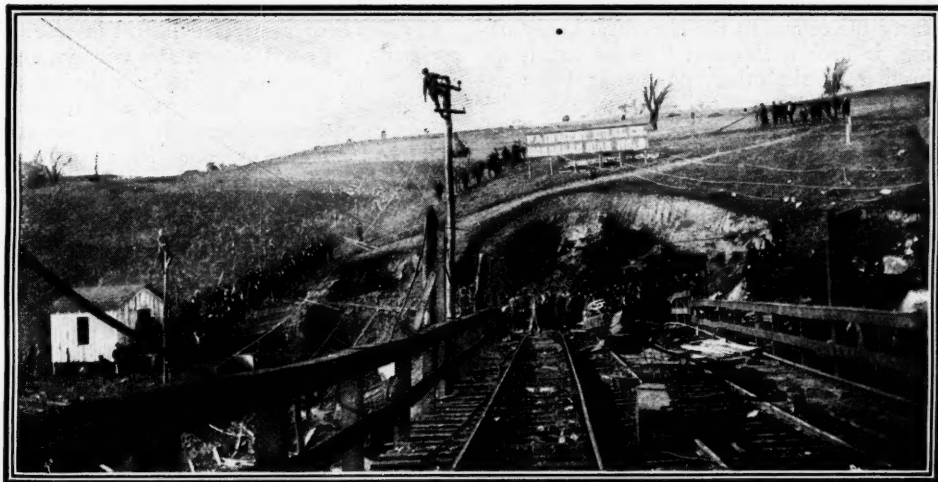
THE GREATEST COAL-MINE DISASTER IN OUR HISTORY.

TO the long list of mining disasters in this country that in the mines of the Fairmount Coal Company, at Monongah, W. Va., on December 6, 1907, must be added, with the observation that its death tally is the most appalling in American coal-mining history. Death made a clean sweep that day, and his harvest was 344 souls,—miners, bosses, and engineers,—every man below ground when his signal came, save four, who escaped somewhat miraculously through a "toad hole." That desolation's hand is heavy on the bereaved in Monongah, and that it is still resounding with a ritual of sobbing, is inferable from the statistics of this awful visitation. Approximately 250 widows, 1000 children, and many aged persons have been left without means of support, and this does not include unborn children,—the greatest hardship of all. The population of the town was about 3000, so the disaster has destroyed about one-half of its breadwinners. Most of the families live in the company's houses, and as many of them desire to return to their relatives in Europe, the little town may be materially depopulated within a short time.

In *Charities and The Commons* for January 4, Mr. Paul U. Kellogg contributes a graphic and comprehensive article on the explosion, its apparent causes, its effects on the people, the economic and social questions in-

involved, the rescue work, and the measures for precaution in mine-working, as well from the viewpoint of the employer and employee as from the State itself. "West Virginia mines," says he, "have a bad name. We know that they kill a great number of men in the course of a year." Number 6 and 8 (in which the men lost their lives) of the Monongah mines are splendidly equipped from a production standpoint. No. 8 is a new mine; its tippie is the biggest in West Virginia. A giant fan whirled at the mouth of a separate air-way. Machines did the cutting and electricity ran the cars that carried the coal.

When the mine was running the great fan referred to sucked the wind up the air-way at the rate of fifty miles an hour,—against which a man could not stand in so small a passage. Thus, to falling masses, and darkness and gas, new hybrid forces, half safeguards, half dangers of the air,—explosives and wind and lightning are added. Despite the electrical apparatus the West Virginia statutes prescribe no standards to safeguard the lives of miners. No apprenticeship is necessary, and no examination, for such positions as mine foreman or fire boss. The machine has led to an influx of foreigners,—instructions in seven languages are hung at the mouth of the Monongah mines,—who know practically nothing about the



THE MOUTH OF NO. 8 MINE, AT MONONGAH.

(Showing holes scooped out in the hill by the force of the explosion on December 6, 1907.)

dangers within a mine, and, consequently, are unable to exercise the care essential to their own safety.

In the light of the recent explosions the vital question is whether mere willingness to sell your labor is to remain the badge that admits to a mine, or whether some positive standard of efficiency shall not be required by law, even if it raises the labor cost, before a man is turned loose in the offings.

DUST VERSUS GAS AS THE CAUSE.

Various rumors were current as to the cause at Monongah. Some laid it to gas. A mining engineer held that a runaway trip of cars had smashed the electric wiring deep in the mines, and that the presence of coked dust throughout the headings after the explosion proved that coal dust rather than gas was to blame. The officials claimed that a "windy shot" had caused the trouble, for under the West Virginia code there is no provision for clearing away the dust from a chain saw after a machine operation before shooting the blast, as there is in France. The general manager stoutly maintains that there never has been any gas in the mines, and that economy in operation and equipment has never been attained at the expense of the miners' safety. These, however, are questions for the consideration of the State and federal authorities.

MAGNIFICENT RESCUE WORK.

Of the rescue work the writer speaks in tones of commendation. An Italian laborer, outside the Catholic church, where services were being conducted for the dead, offered to carry the coffins to the churchyard, remarking, in broken English: "Every one is the brother of the other, no matter what nationality he belongs to." It was that spirit that brought the president, vice-president, and directors by special train to the mines and kept them there day and night. Likewise, other miners from Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Ohio,—all volunteers, expert in feeling their way in "after air," in building brattices, and clearing entries, and willing to work seventy-two hours at a stretch, if necessary. "This mustering of the minute men of the coal pits," says he, "is one of the finest things in industrial life in America to-day." Nos. 6 and 8 were on the same bank, a mile and a half apart, and connected underground. The roof caved in only in a few places, and it was mainly "after-damp" that the rescuers had to fight. Their principal weapons were boards, can-

vas, and cement, and a spinning fan at the mine mouth.

He describes the work as follows:

The entries of a mine are parallel tunnels connected every so often with cut-offs, like rungs on a ladder. Butt entries, similar to the main entries, branch off at right angles to the latter, and from these butt entries open out the chambers, or rooms, from which the coal is cleared. The fans forced the air down one entry until it came to a cut-off, around which the current set, coming back up the other entry. The men followed the air, until they reached the cut-off, where they set up a brattice, or temporary partition, blocking the connecting passage. Then the air current had to push on to the next cut-off before it could find an outlet to the other entry. The men followed, a gang of from fifteen to thirty-five, the explorers leading, lifting their safety lamps to the roof and watching the flame. If it lengthened there was fire-damp there and they would know they were treading on the heels of another explosion and must wait; or else they lowered their lamps and watched the flame. If it died down, there was back-damp there, heavy-settling, but ready to reel over the man that breathed it. Again, they must wait, must go ten feet ahead and try; must hold canvas barricades against the after-damp till their arms ached, while the brattices slowly went up; and all the time must forage for death in that breathless sweater, finding it in a disemboweled mule, or the charred, crushed thing that had been a miner, or a headless trapper boy, or an empty shoe.

The rescuers were mostly English-speaking. The son of a Michigan judge, a young volunteer in a grey sweater, and former mine superintendent, was placed in charge of the explorers. Some of these had no rest for three days and nights. The company's policy has been considered liberal in case of accidents. It never dispossesses widows, and gives them a chance to make a living at washing or keeping boarders, and requires others to patronize them. It also gives the children employment, and its record for safety precautions was above the State's standards. Still, it was not what it might be. The managers of mines in West Virginia have resisted and blocked, says the writer, preventive legislation in that State for many years. "They had kept down unions through which the work sense of the men might have found expression; and they had resisted State supervision. And 344 men were dead."

Reverting to the families of the suffocated miners, the writer claims that their destitution to-day is owing to the failure of the social mechanism to keep pace with industrial development by devising ways in which

these mobile family groups shall have lodged in them some measure of economic integrity, which shall survive the death of the breadwinner in the mines. The fact that the very homes of the miners were part of the producing plant emphasizes the break where an industry turns back to society the families it

has used and crippled. A relief fund of \$200,000 is being raised for the widows and other sufferers, to which the Fairmount Company contributed \$20,000, and the Carnegie Hero Fund Commission \$35,000. It is intended to give to each widow \$300, and, also, \$100 for each child under sixteen years.

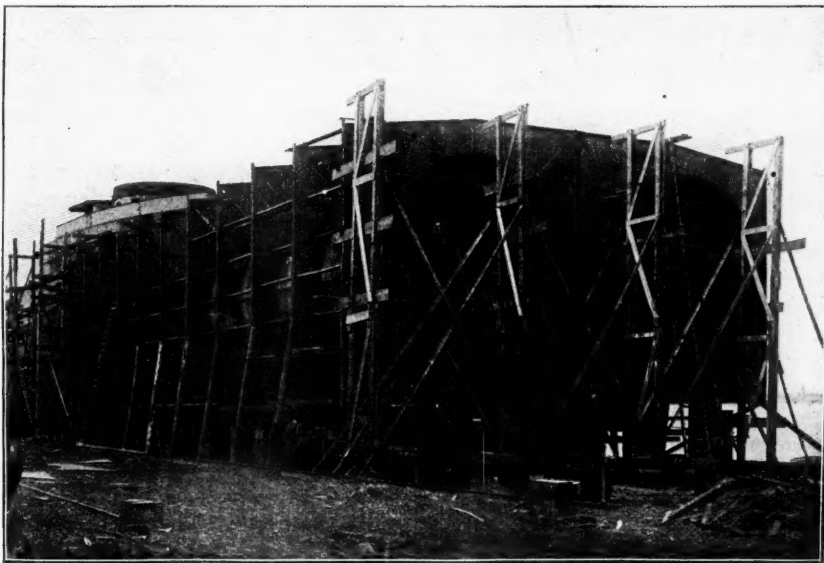
THE DETROIT RIVER TUNNEL.

WHERE the Detroit River defines the boundary line between this country and Canada five important railroads cross: Michigan Central, Wabash, Grand Trunk system, Père Marquette, and Canadian Pacific. Powerful transfer steamers up to the present, capable of taking on their broad decks entire "limited" trains, have served as the conduit for passengers and traffic from Detroit to Windsor. Fifteen minutes is the usual time in crossing the river, but the switching and coupling on the other side occupy thirty or forty minutes,—a serious delay in fast service between the East and West; but in winter, when the ice floes obstruct the river, the delay is longer. Freight traffic has grown to enormous proportions in recent years, and this renders the ferry more than ever inadequate.

Hence the project of a tunnel between Detroit and Windsor, below the bed of the

river, to reduce the time of a train's crossing to seven or eight minutes, and avoid delays and expense incident to the maintenance of expensive ferries, which are slow and cumbersome. This tunnel will come as the culmination of Mr. Henry B. Ledyard's successful administration of the Michigan Central system. He is the originator of this stupendous undertaking, which is now in charge of an advisory board of engineers, consisting of Mr. William J. Wilgus, chairman, vice-president of the N. Y. C. & H. R. R.; Mr. H. A. Carson, chief engineer of the Boston Transit Commission, and Mr. W. S. Kinnear, chief engineer of the Detroit River Tunnel Company, in direct charge of construction, says Mr. James C. Mills in *Cassier's Magazine* for January.

Months and months have been spent in planning this tunnel, until the final method of construction was adopted in the summer



PAIR OF TUNNEL TUBES, READY FOR FLOATING.

of 1906. This provides for a "double-barreled" tunnel of steel and concrete, through which trains will be operated by electricity. The Butler Bros.-Hoff Company, of New York, is the contractor, and in the early summer of 1909 the tunnel is to be opened. Its method of construction is novel and unlike all other plans for similar undertakings. The section of this tunnel under the stream will be 2622 feet long, and the river's depth varies from twenty to forty-eight feet. A wide and deep trench is being excavated, into which great steel tubes will be lowered into place and, when adjusted, covered with concrete. Briefly speaking, this is the tunnel. It is the idea of Mr. Wilgus. The trench will be excavated to the depth of forty-five feet below the bed of the river, and will be forty feet wide at the bottom. Piles are then driven down to the bottom of this trench to serve as a support for the huge tubes while they are being bolted in place.

Building these tubes is a colossal work. Made from plates of steel three-eighths of an inch thick, the sections are twenty-three feet in diameter and 260 feet long. At intervals of eleven and one-half feet on the outside there are transverse diaphragms which strengthen the tunnel and divide into sections the space to be filled with concrete. When ready for lowering, the tubes, with ends "plugged" to render them watertight, are floated and brought exactly over their intended resting place. Then water is admitted, and they settle by gravitation on the submerged supports. This operation calls for the highest engineering skill. To aid in this undertaking each tube is provided with a detachable upright at each end to indicate its position when sinking. As these extend about ten feet above the water, they serve to adjust the lateral position of the tubes.

When laterally adjusted, divers descend and examine the tubes carefully, to see if the bearings of the diaphragms on the beams of the pilings are in place and, also, to bolt the huge sections together. On each tube is a "sleeve" at one end, which can be slipped over the end of the tube previously sunk. This has a flange that is bolted to a corresponding flange on the other tube, a rubber gasket being placed between them. A similar gasket is fitted in the inner end of the sleeve bearing up against the edge of the other tube. With the sleeves and gaskets in place, bolting follows, the gaskets being

squeezed together between the ends of the tubes, forming a tight joint. A space of three by eighteen inches is thus formed around the tubes at the end of the joint, and this is filled with a grout of cement.

Concrete is the next factor. Gravel is first deposited over the bottom of the trench to a depth of two feet, to make a proper bed for the concrete, which, upon hardening, encompasses the foundation, piling, the tubes, diaphragms, and sleeves in a solid mass of stone. A trough of oak planking is built without the tubes, and into this trough the concrete is chuted and spread over the bottom of the trench, and is carried up over the tops of the tubes to a thickness of about five feet. Within these tubes will be built twenty-inch thick rings of concrete, and these are the tunnels proper. When completed, there will be a clear head of eighteen feet from the top of rails to center of arch, and sixteen and one-half feet wide across the center line. Ten 260-foot sections will be required to connect the American and Canadian dock lines. Including the approaches, the total length is 7960 feet from portal to portal, and the open cuts are 4840 feet additional, or, in all, nearly two and one-half miles. Concrete is the main factor in the construction of this tunnel, and it is estimated that 300,000 barrels of Portland cement, 250,000 tons of screened gravel, and nearly 1,000,000 barrels of sand will be required. The tunnel will be of the light concrete finish, brilliantly lighted, clean and well ventilated. Its cost will be at least \$8,000,000, which will be defrayed by the Michigan Central Railway.

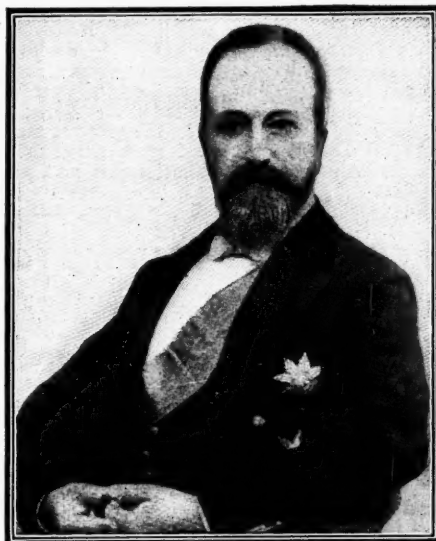
In constructing the approach tunnels, two shafts were sunk on each side of the river, one on each shore, and others about half way between the first shafts and the portals. In this way a number of excavating gangs may be worked at the same time by digging in both directions. The operations are going on steadily, and beside the excavating, concrete gangs are mixing and building up the walls of the bores with concrete. These walls are four feet thick, arched overhead, and covered with a water-proofing of layers of tar, pitch and felt, which, in turn, is protected from injury by four inches of cement and brick. The shafts near the river banks are to be permanent, and are lined with strong double walls of concrete. They will serve to ventilate the tunnel and as outlets for the drainage pipes, as well as an exit in case of accident in the tunnel.

THE RUSSIAN BUDGET FOR 1908.

THE *Russkiya Vedomosti*, in commenting on the speech of the Russian Minister of Finance, Kokovtsov, in the third Duma, on the budget for 1908, brings out some interesting data, throwing light on the present economic condition of Russia. This journal agrees with the minister's optimistic view that "as soon as the inner life of the country again becomes normal the prosperity of the working masses and the financial condition of the country will be on the way to a steady improvement." Neither does it dispute his thesis that "the marked signs of the pacification of the country serve as favorable symptoms in the estimation of the nearest future, when compared with the recent past."

But this evasive bureaucratic phraseology, says the writer of the article quoted, leaves out of consideration the more serious questions connected with the subject. According to the minister, the abnormal phenomena in the inner life of Russia ends with the unfortunate "war," the failures of crop, and the internal disorders. But much that the minister considers to be normal must in reality be called abnormal. In 1905 Russia raised 3,784,000,000 poods of grain (a pood equals forty pounds); in 1906, 3,257,000,000 poods,—i. e., 527,000,000 poods less. In 1905 697,000,000 poods were exported; in 1906 590,000,000,—i. e., 107,000,000 poods less. For the domestic consumption there remained 420,000,000 poods less, and for the aid of the peasants suffering from failures of crops 40,600,000 rubles was expended in 1905, against 110,800,000 rubles in 1906,—i. e., 70,000,000 rubles more. The export of grain is apparently the main trump in the official estimation of the economic condition of the country. The *Vyedomosti* continues:

We do not intend to stand up in defense of the widely spread thesis that it is wrong to export grain while the population is starving. On the contrary, reduce the export of the Russian grain, and the population will probably starve. But take off the yoke from the oppressed productive power of the people, and our fatherland will begin to catch up rapidly with the transatlantic republic, which exports agricultural products for nearly two millions of rubles per annum. Of this pressure, which is now keeping down the productive power of the people for ages, the Minister of Finances does not speak at all. It is certainly not his fault, but the fault of the system of which his office is a part. The agricultural development of Russia is also limited to a certain class only, and the government has never done much in the way of



M. KOKOVTSOV.
(Russian Minister of Finance.)

the elevation of the peasant masses. With its oligarchical tendencies it is certainly not able to do so.

In a second article the writer points out that a government organization, in collecting taxes from the population, is obliged to create conditions for the cultural development of the country, in order to enable the citizens to pay these taxes. In comparing the Russian budget in its general features with the budgets of the ordinary income of Germany and Great Britain for the past ten years, the writer finds this statistical comparison:

	Increase in the ordi- nary income of the Gov- ernment for 1896-1906. Per cent.	Income from each inhabitant in 1906. Rubles.	Increase of taxes on each inhab- itant from 1896-1906. Per cent.
Prussia	50	36.1	30
Great Britain.....	43	30.5	27
Russia	42	11.5	24

The Russian budget grows more slowly than the German and the English in absolute figures as well as in the calculation according to population, and there is a greater intensiveness in the taxing power of the Russian masses than in those of the western countries.

But the cultural demands of the Russian population are satisfied by the government much less than in the western countries. It is therefore much harder to increase the Russian budget

than the English or Prussian. And who knows how long this economic, political, and moral pressure will continue in Russia. As a sign of the increase in Russia's wealth Mr. Kokovtsov points out the increase of deposits in the Russian savings banks. But statistics show that in Prussia the per capita bank deposits were, in 1906, 224 marks, in the United States \$42, and in Russia 8.3 rubles. Besides, the greatest number of depositors and the largest amounts of deposits do not belong to the farmers or labor-

ing class, but to the middle class of merchants and officials.

As to the optimistic view of the minister concerning Russia's credit, the writer thinks that only a decisive, earnest, and sincere change in domestic policy and an elevation of the productive power of the country can finally bring back to Russia her forfeited position in the world's money market.

CURAÇAO A REALLY SUCCESSFUL TROPICAL COLONY.

THERE has been so much talk of late years about the lamentable results obtained when white men try to govern tropical colonies, that it is refreshing and surprising to hear of one colony which is a constant proof that it is really possible for a European nation to administer successfully and very profitably a region not far from the equator. To most people the name of Curaçao is a combination of letters difficult of pronunciation, signifying nothing but a delectable and fiery drink with an indefinable aroma about it, which after meditation suggests that orange skins may enter into its composition. An excellently illustrated article in *Hojas Selectas* (Barcelona) presents the name with entirely different associations, as belonging to a little island of the Antilles, just north of Venezuela, whose characteristics are as pleasant as they are unexpected and unique.

The island is one of the inconsiderable colonial possessions of the Dutch, whose complete success in governing and cultivating this tiny corner of the tropical world is little known to the general public, although the island has been occupied by Europeans since 1523, a hundred years before the landing of our own Pilgrim Fathers. The date of its discovery is not certain, but the leading events in its mildly checkered career are well-known. It has changed hands two or three times, but the Dutch have generally been in possession, and have had no dispute to their claim for 200 years. In 1694 a large number of Jews settled there, fleeing from persecutions in Europe, and still form a considerable element in the character of the place. Another factor of population is the large colored element.

That the successful administration of the Dutch has not been due to absence of the usual perplexing problems of tropical countries and peoples is shown by the history of the liberation of the slave element.

As early as 1752 there was a great insurrection among them, showing that they must have been unusually spirited, since slavery was a generally accepted institution at that time. This rebellion was put down with the inhuman ferocity to the lower classes thought necessary at that date as the only means of preserving society, but mutinies and rebellions continued till the King of Holland finally emancipated all slaves by an admirable royal decree, allowing \$80 to owners for loss of each slave, and 70 centimes a day for each of the sick and aged slaves, thus thrown on their own resources after a lifetime of dependence. Since that time so profound a peace and quiet has reigned that the annals of the colony seem scarcely like those of a real corner of this wicked world.

The population numbers about 50,000, although, since no census has ever been taken, the same uncertainty floats over these figures as over the age of some old negroes. It is guessed at and estimated. At any rate most of what population there is is concentrated in the one city of the place, Willemstad, which is a very urban little metropolis, with all the conditions of life of one of our smaller cities, but it has a record that puts to shame any city of our own. In an absolutely indefinite number of years not a single capital crime has been heard of either in the city or among the rural population.

The author of the article in the Spanish magazine attributes this remarkably creditable history partly to the pacific nature of the inhabitants, and largely to the wise, temperate and eminently just administration of this colony by the Dutch Government.

The colonists feel so strongly the integrity of their rulers that, though they send no deputy to the Dutch Parliament, nor have in any other way a share in the home government, they are perfectly satisfied with the arrangement, and none of the clamors for self-government so usual among far-away colonies are ever heard among them. The island, and several others even smaller, are governed by a chief official appointed directly by the Queen of Holland. He is aided by a cabinet and by a sort of colonial council which serves as a legislature for the colony. The present incumbent rejoices in the



THE GOVERNMENT HOUSE OF CURAÇAO.

name of O. de Yong van Beek-en-Donk, and rules with perfect equity over a motley population, one-third of which is composed of emancipated slaves and their descendant. The Jews are very numerous, prosperous, and influential, having virtually all the business of the place in their hands. They live in a special quarter of the city set aside for them and have two synagogues. The rest of the population is almost solidly Roman Catholic, which is another curious element in a colony which has for so long been a dependency of Protestant Holland.

The city of Willemstad itself is a very attractive modern metropolis, through which the Dutch, true to their home ideals have run several large canals. These not only facilitate immensely the transportation of merchandise, but give the town a charming half-Dutch, half-Venetian aspect on which the Spanish author of the article dwells with delight. He is also struck with the singular cleanliness of the town, a trait which is again pre-eminently Dutch.

The city has two synagogues, two Roman Catholic churches, two Masonic lodges, two banks,—one a savings bank, the other a trust-company,—two casinos, two hospitals, an ice factory (a great luxury in so small a tropical city), electric lights . . . all those modern conveniences which make it seem oddly like a piece of Europe floated away from its moorings. It is singular to think of this busy little center of life, hopeful, prosperous, pursuing its way in perfect accord with the spirit of the modern world and beating it at its own game of material success, although almost wholly unknown to it.

The great prosperity of the island depends by no means upon extraordinary natural re-

sources, for it is of volcanic formation, hilly, and entirely without water except what comes from rainfall. It is, moreover, very, very tiny, being only forty miles long and about ten miles wide; but from this little scrap of land the industry and ingenuity of the Dutch planters have obtained large returns. In spite of the concentration of the population in the city, the rest of the island is dotted with farms and farmhouses where some of the usual tropical crops are raised, tobacco, indigo, sugar, etc., but especially medlars, which are the best in the world. The physical aspect of the island is described by the Spanish author as extremely pleasing. In the city are a number of flourishing industries, such as the making of straw hats, fine cabinet-making, etc. A large quantity of salt is exported yearly and a very valuable mine of calcium phosphate is worked with great profit. But the real industry is the manufacture of the celebrated liqueur which takes its name from the island. This is prepared from the expressed juice of the skins of a peculiar variety of orange which grows freely in Curaçao. The fact that this sort of orange apparently grows only on that island means virtually an eternal monopoly of the industry by Curaçao, which in turn virtually assures prosperity for all the future.

The Spanish author, evidently with the memory of Spanish failures in colonial administration fresh in his mind, speaks especially of the exceptional uprightness and honesty of all public officials, who secure the

administration of justice without delay and without favor, and says that Holland owes to this policy, steadily carried out, her remarkable freedom from the rebellions and discords which disturb other countries who

are trying to accomplish the same thing in tropical regions. The loyalty of the inhabitants of Curaçao to the crown of Holland is a fitting reward for the justice which they have always received.

SWEDISH EXPERIMENTS IN COMMUNAL OWNERSHIP AND CO-OPERATION.

THE parish of Orsa in the province of Dalarne (The Vales) has long been known as "the richest community in Sweden," and not without good cause. Thanks to the vast forest lands owned and worked by the parish as a commune, its inhabitants have been wholly free from taxes of every kind for the last twenty-five years. During the same period a number of important and far-reaching improvement schemes have been carried out, resulting in making the roads and the schools of the parish rank among the finest in the country. But this prosperity has not failed to arouse envy, and recently insinuations have been heard to the effect that the people of Orsa were being "pauperized," and that the great funds raised by the selling of timber were being squandered in a way that would justify interference by the national and provincial authorities.

These accusations and the officially made suggestion that a special auditor be appointed by the government to go over the accounts of the parish have caused the more bitterness in the hearts of the Orsa people because the autonomy granted the communes in Sweden is remarkably great, jealously guarded, and invariably merited. And the sturdy peasants of Orsa have hinted in retort that much of the hostile criticism might be traced to the known desire of its population that a great portion, if not all, of the land within the parish be held collectively as communal property and leased to the tillers.

The whole matter is made the subject of an interesting article in a recent issue of the *Social Tidskrift* (Stockholm).

Up to 1879 Orsa was known as one of the most poverty-stricken communes in Sweden. Its soil was at once meagre and swampy, and for those reasons particularly exposed to the ravages of the heavy fall frosts. Agriculture was declining steadily, and the emigration from the parish was appalling. There were no railroads and next to no roads.

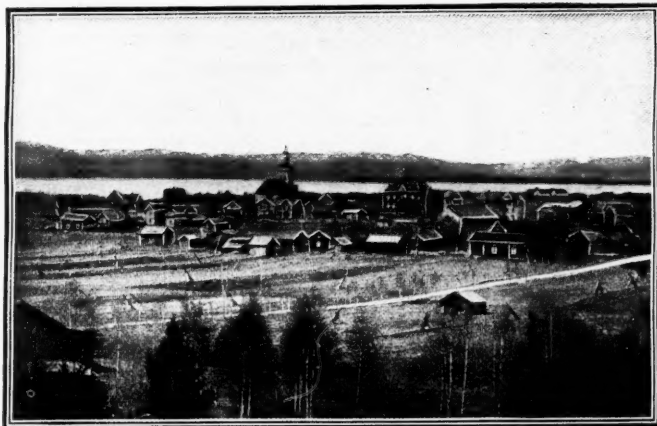
At that time a royal commission was at work distributing and disposing of certain forest lands which had before been reserved as crown property. Some one persuaded the representatives of Orsa, rather against their own inclina-

tion, to set aside one-third of the lands allotted to the landowners of that parish as communal property, instead of having it all parcelled out among the landholders, as was done elsewhere. The arrangement was confirmed by royal patent and some 160,000 acres of timber land was reserved in the poorest and least accessible district of the parish. Up to the present time the sale of timber from those forests has brought the commune in all nearly 10,000,000 kronor, or about \$2,600,000. According to the rules laid down by the government for the use of the means accruing to the Orsa Forest Fund, the proceeds were to be applied as follows: (1) Expenses for the protection, renewal, and working of the forest; (2) 10 per cent., until a total of 300,000 kronor (\$78,000) be reached, as an emergency fund for "famine" years; (3) for purposes regarded as generally useful to the commune, such as medical attendance, care of the poor, popular education, improvement of agriculture through irrigation or otherwise, development of stock raising, improvement of police, and the construction of new as well as improvement of old roads. The regulations established provided expressly that if any part of the funds be used to meet taxes, whether national or communal, this must be done in such a way that no special favor was shown to the landholders of the parish, to whom, as a body, the communal forest is regarded as belonging.

The result has been that all the taxes have come out of the fund, and that the citizens, whether owning land or no, have been exempted from taxation of any kind. It was also provided that not more than 1,000,000 kronor should be invested in railroad building. The handling of the fund was entrusted to a commission of three, one of whom is appointed by the provincial government, while the other two are elected by the landholders of the parish. Three auditors chosen in the same way go over the accounts of the commission annually. This is how the proceeds of the fund have been applied so far:

The payment of all taxes during the last twenty-five years has already been mentioned. About 200 miles of excellent roads have been built, at a cost of \$235,000. Irrigation ditches totalling in length 550,000 feet have been dug at a cost of about \$80,000. Where not long ago could be found only two poorly equipped schools with a couple of teachers, there are now thirteen model schools with a staff of forty-five teachers,

not to mention two "school kitchens" for the instruction of girls in domestic duties. The teachers are all paid about 10 per cent. more than the law requires. And a system has been established enabling the children after finishing their schooling to return for brief periods each year to freshen up their knowledge. A parish hospital has also been built, but comparatively little has been done so far for the care of the poor, and the proposition to establish old age pensions has not been carried out.



THE VILLAGE OF ORSA.

(Known as the richest community in Sweden.)

The general result of these improvements has been to raise the standard of intelligence and education among the people, as well as to better their economical condition by making the parish practically immune to frosts until after harvest time. On the other hand the commission has managed to evade the provisions of the letters-patent by investing not less than 2,500,000 kroner in three different railroad lines, none of which has proved an interest bearing investment so far. To do this, the parish has borrowed the money thus employed above the sum which the law permitted to be taken for such purpose from the fund itself. And at present the anomalous condition exists that the richest commune in the country is hard up for cash at times with which to pay the interest on the railroad loans. It is admitted by every one, however, that the roads encouraged by the parish have been free from all speculative features, and that their building has been of great importance in opening up districts which previously were practically shut off from all communication with the outside world.

If anybody should ask an Orsa peasant to-day whether the fund has been of use to the parish or not, the man would laugh outright and reply: "Where would we be without that fund?" And if you ask persons in different walks of life whether the riches coming from the forests have had a demoralizing influence on the people, the answers, given in various forms, with all in substance say this: "To begin with, when the purpose of the fund was not yet known to a majority, those were found who imagined that it would be useless to strive and struggle in the future, as the fund would take care of them anyhow." But by degrees the people learned that the only direct advantage coming to them

from the fund was the freedom from taxation. With his private economical condition everyone had to deal as he could best. Therefore it is not possible at the present time to observe any decrease of private enterprise among the Orsa people, while, on the other hand, a large increase in the interest for all public matters makes itself felt.

Inter-Communal Co-operation In Sweden.

The first Swedish Communal Congress was held at Stockholm on October 10, 11, and 12, when about 400 delegates from some seventy cities, boroughs and towns met and organized the Swedish Cities' Union. The call for the congress was issued by the Central Association for Social Work and was signed, among others, by four members of the City Council of the Swedish capital, two of whom are also members of the Upper House of the Riksdag. The programme for the congress is printed in a recent number of the *Social Tidskrift* and contains the following subjects of discussion:

Modern development of urban communities. The problem of city suburbs. Cities as employers. The land policy of the cities. The national building law and the city ordinances relating to buildings. The cities and the housing problem of the laboring classes. City budget. Communalization of public utilities. The food question in the cities.

In connection with the convening of the congress the same periodical publishes an interesting review of the progress of inter-communal co-operation both in Sweden and in other countries. Attention is first given to the development of municipal enterprises for the improvement of individual cities,

which brings out some interesting and little known facts. Urban communities in Sweden were rather slow in following the splendid example set by the cities of England above all, but also by those of America, Germany, and France. Thus the author of the article relates that in 1874 only four Swedish cities had constructed sewerage systems, while ten years later not a single city possessed a department of street cleaning that could be called properly organized. Since then immense progress has been made, as evidenced by the fact that during the last five years the death rate in the cities has been lower than in the rural communities.

The case of the little city of Oskarshamn, now having about 7000 inhabitants, is cited as peculiarly characteristic.

The first two street lamps, burning oil, were provided in 1850. Up till then citizens out at night had carried lanterns. The next forward step was the exchange of old-fashioned vegetable oil for kerosene in 1865. Two years later it was discovered that more than two lamps were needed. Then offers to build gas works began to pour in from foreign capitalists who had been deprived of their home markets by the spreading of the municipal ownership idea in their own countries. Those offers were rejected so long that gas works ceased to be the proper thing and their place was taken by power houses for the generating of electricity. Still

the foreign capitalists were tendering their services, with as little result. At last, in 1898, the city built its own power house, and then in such a manner that electricity was provided not only for the streets and public buildings but for every private home in the city, while there was still enough left over to sell to factories in need of power for their machinery.

And along the line just indicated the first definite forms of intercommunal co-operation in Sweden made their appearance. Coal is expensive over there. Few countries are richer in water power, on the other hand. Thus one city after the other among the larger ones proceeded to make itself independent of the coal market and its towering prices by purchasing a waterfall within easy reach. Such action has already been taken by the cities of Stockholm, Örebro, Gäfle, Nora, Hedemora, Köping, and Hudiksvall. Others that were poorer or less fortunately situated pooled their interests for similar purposes. The small communities of the province of Blekinge on the southern coast have joined hands in this way with the large Scanian municipalities of Malmö and Lund, while the cities of Landskrona, Helsingborg and Halmstad on the west coast have become large stockholders and directing factors in the great Southern Swedish Power Company, a semi-public corporation.

THE TEMPER OF THE AMERICAN.

PROVINCIALISM is worthy of the keenest study, and few realize that its relation to the national welfare makes a comprehensive knowledge of its essential character of the greatest importance. This is true of all peoples, but especially of our own, for here the national state is in its beginning, and the impress of the locality is still the most significant phase of our national political experience. To understand the American temper, we must go back to the indigenous American, who is predominantly rural,—a resident of an agricultural community.

This American is pre-eminently optimistic. However dangerous or threatening present conditions may be, he is never distressed, for he believes that finally everything will be adjusted. This is because he is right at heart, and this is universally recognized. He is attached to the soil and believes in rural economy. Success and labor are convertible terms,—and he is no

believer in a privileged class. The self-made man is his ideal, and birth has no prerogative. He believes a heritage of toil is the most valuable legacy for son or daughter, and a failure to accumulate a competence is ascribed to shiftlessness. He is a thorough believer in the Canonist doctrine that there is sufficient labor in every community to support every inhabitant, and that a failure to be employed is a personal fault. A tramp is, in his estimation, a reprehensible being.

SUCCESS AND TOIL SYNONYMOUS.

Thus does Mr. Joseph B. Ross outline the indigenous American in the *American Journal of Sociology* for November. Caste distinctions are not recognized by this American philosopher, says the writer, and personal worth is the only thing which receives his commendation. Hence, with him, success and toil are synonymous, and each is deemed the equivalent of the ethically right.

He measures ethics by an economic standard, and expects the toiler to accumulate wealth. Because such a man is worthy, goodness is identified with success. By parity of reason evil is identified with failure. When evil befalls a good man, says the writer, the matter is incomprehensible to our indigenous one. Likewise is the success of an evil person an anomaly to him.

He is a firm believer in himself and in the solidarity of his community. The successful man was always born on a farm, and was acquainted with the hardships of rural life. His early straits developed the sterling qualities which afterward led to success. This tends to make him narrow. The dependence of the community is upon its substantial citizens, who must be upheld and sustained; hence the strange face is not welcomed. The transient is bidden to leave the neighborhood with speed, and the strange family is not welcomed until time has proved its worth and ability to accumulate fortune.

A THOROUGH-GOING PARTISAN.

His temper is dominantly political. The chief citizens of the community are chosen to the local offices. There is keen interest in the elections, and every man is a partisan. He will oppose his best friend and support instead an unworthy member of his political faith through partisanship. His party platform is an *ex cathedra* utterance, and that of the opposition anathema. Charges of corruption in office do not affect him deeply. If the derelict is of an opposing political affiliation he ascribes the happening to that fact. If a member of his own party is involved, he is not inclined to condemn him. His mind is not keenly alive to the sacredness of public office. "The incumbent is expected to exploit the public if it can be done without detection, and the American admires the astuteness of the one who can thus improve his private fortune with the greatest skill."

He believes firmly in favoritism and privilege,—the rule of the partisan tempers every conception. He suggests to the merchant a reduction in the price of his purchases, is not above using personal influence with a judge or jury to favor himself, and when drawn for jury duty is susceptible to the same approaches. He cannot understand how a personal friend should permit a judgment injurious to his interests, for he

favors his friend at the expense of justice.

Religiously, he is passively orthodox, and rarely a zealot. While his interest is inane he defends the church firmly whenever it is attacked. Religion is to him an essential safeguard to the community, and he does not tolerate independents. He is not predisposed to pleasure. A few books,—the Bible, sectarian literature and the pamphlet laws of the State,—may be observed in his home. A visit to the county seat or market town, where he gossips about political conditions, or crops, is his recreation. The chief evils, he believes, are the theatre, the dance, and card games. Novel-reading is trifling and sometimes dangerous to the moral tone, he holds; but on visits to nearby towns he sometimes succumbs to his bibulous propensities.

With no faith in specialized powers he is a great believer in versatility. He admires the man who is equally skilful in all undertakings. Ability cannot but win a prominent place in the public regard; hence, the college professor can teach any branch of learning, and the lawyer or physician direct agricultural or commercial ventures, successfully. Public speakers are seers and sages. Their utterances are accepted with little investigation and little regard for original authority. Platitudes are commended and verbosity is apotheosized. In thought he is not capable of abstraction. The concrete is his guiding star. Beliefs and practices are embodied in persons, and words of favored statesmen are read and pondered, and quoted as conclusive in any argument.

These characteristics bear the imprint of the frontier and were formed in an earlier age. With changed conditions interest in the larger world has succeeded the vista of the hamlet. But while environment has been outgrown, the American type has persisted. The tendency of American development is, however, the antithesis of this temper, which is agricultural and rural, while the bent, to-day, is decidedly commercial and urban. This conflict of urban tendencies with rural thought must affect our entire life, and so long as the thought of the people remains provincial the larger national life cannot be lived. That philosophic mould is too small for present needs, and the creation of an enlarged view is one of the needs of the immediate future. Whether this is possible or not depends on the form it may assume.

SERVIA'S ECONOMIC PROSPERITY.

NOTWITHSTANDING all its domestic troubles, the Russian Government has never ceased to stimulate the panslavistic movement at home as well as abroad. Many special agents and newspaper correspondents are frequently touring Germany, Austria-Hungary, Roumania, Macedonia, Serbia, and Bulgaria, and even the United States, for the cause of the future panslavic state, which they expect will be established some day under the protection of the great White Czar. The well-known newspaper correspondent, Vasili Nemirovich-Danchenko, has lately visited Croatia and Serbia, and in a series of letters to the Moscow daily, *Russkoye Slovo* (the *Russian Word*), presents a very optimistic picture of the progress of the Slavs in those countries. With all the efforts of the Austrian Government to put prohibitory tariffs on Servian imports, the Servian cities are growing rapidly, and with them Servia's prosperity.

Instead of exporting their cattle, as heretofore, to Austria-Hungary, the Servians are shipping their oxen, via Salonica, to England and Alexandria, while Austria-Hungary is still compelled to import geese and ducks. Instead of paying high custom duties, a great part of the poultry is now smuggled in by expert contrabandists. As to the main product of the Servian farmers,—the hog,—Austria-Hungary will be compelled to import it, as the Hungarian hog never furnishes such lard as the Servian.

Turning to Servia's financial prosperity, the correspondent points out that while the banks of Vienna and Budapest have been compelled to raise their discount rates to 8 and 9 per cent., the banks of Belgrade charge the old-established rate of 6 per cent.

While there are no great capitalists in Servia, the masses are prosperous, and there is no poverty in any part of the country. The farmers are well fed and well clad. Only the old Servian politicians are still looking for favors from Vienna; the new radical party is not afraid of the Austria-Hungarian minataur. In spite of the tariff war with Austria, Belgrade has grown wonderfully in the last five years. Splendid new buildings, improved pavements, fine hotels, schools, and public institutions show the remarkable development of the Servian capital.

Nemirovich-Danchenko was especially pleased to find that at the Grand Hotel, where formerly the German language predominated, Russian is now spoken. Elevators, electric lights and all other modern improvements,—he thinks that even St. Petersburg could learn a lesson from the capital of this lilliputian country.



KING PETER OF SERVIA.

(Whose realm now enjoys great prosperity.)

The Russian writer believes that the Austrian diplomatists have made a great mistake with their prohibitory tariff on Servian products. Instead of buying sugar and glass from Austria, the Servians have now established their own sugar refineries and glass factories.

And while the Croats and Slovaks from Austria-Hungary are emigrating in great numbers to America, the Servians remain on their farms, raising the hog, pasturing their oxen, and cultivating their vineyards and fruit gardens.

THE WEAKNESS OF GERMANY'S COLONIAL SYSTEM.

THE visit of the German Colonial Minister, Herr Dernburg, to inspect German possessions in Africa, signifies, according to semi-official rumor, that the Emperor William is about to make a final effort to consolidate the imperial possessions oversea into something of a businesslike organization which shall justify, from an economic standpoint at least, the persistency which characterized him in founding his colonial power. It is well known that Bismarck was opposed to colonial expansion, on the ground that to a country that was without a great navy a colonial empire could only be a source of weakness.

Nevertheless, says Maurice Lair, writing in *Revue Bleue* (Paris), Germany could not for any length of time escape from what has been known as "Colonial fever." Nor was she without her own especial reasons.

Her population has increased at such a rate as to frighten economists. In 1834 it was 24,000,000 souls; to-day it exceeds 60,000,000. Between the Germanic and the Anglo-Saxon races the proportions have been reversed since the eighteenth century; then there were 20,000,000 Germans to 9,000,000 Anglo-Saxons; to-day the latter number 135,000,000, as against 75,000,000 of the former. For want of colonies, then, the prolific power of Germany has produced but a loss of living forces, which, in the labor world, even threatens to entail serious civil conflicts.

Other countries, furthermore, rejoice in splendid colonial possessions which are the creation of men of their own race: Great Britain, in every quarter of the globe; France, in the western Mediterranean; Russia, progressively in Asia; the United States, ever expanding in its own wonderful territory. Germany alone lags behind, and is growing to fear that her prestige may fail if she does not organize a domain beyond the sea.

It must be remembered that hitherto the imperial government has counted for almost nothing in the acquisition of colonial territory. Most of the German colonies owe their existence to private enterprise. The advent of the present Emperor, with his ideas of colonial expansion, happened for all practical purposes too late, since almost all the

planet had been already parceled out. To-day German colonial possessions amount in extent to 2,600,000 square miles, with 13,000,000 souls, as against 29,000,000 square miles owned by Great Britain, with 350,000,000 subjects.

The German colonies are not represented in the Reichstag, and are somewhat arbitrarily governed, since the Colonial Department at Berlin, recruited at will by the Chancellor, as yet exercises no serious action. Since his success at the last elections the Kaiser has availed himself of the good-will of the majority to exploit more freely, and with less reference to the imperial tax-exchequer, the value of the imperial colonial possessions.

The results hitherto provided by these possessions would discourage any other man but William II. The German population, for example, is of little account and less promise. In 1906 the census of the German colonies showed that there were only 5276 Germans in the imperial possessions in Africa, and 675 in the Pacific islands,—this, too, as the result of twenty years of effort, and in a territory five times greater than that of Germany. The colonial army, amounting to 18,000 men, is, of course, not included in these returns; but, on the other hand, the missionaries, the officials, the police, the excise, and all the families of these individuals are included, so that the proportion of German colonials resident is almost ridiculously small. Germans are accustomed to ridicule French colonies and their regiments of police and officials. Yet France has 20,000 of her sons exploiting the resources of Tunis. It might be thought that German commercial enterprise had at least shown something in the way of hopeful signs of a future. It would appear to be far from so, since the Fatherland sent, in 1904, 35,000,000 of marks of merchandise to her dependencies, and received in return only 11,000,000 marks of importations. It is true, as pointed out by Herr Dernburg, that railway communica-

tions have not as yet been really established. There are at the present moment over 1000 miles in the course of construction, and much will depend for the future of the colonies on the willingness of German financiers to lend money for further development, a willingness which always provides a barometer of hopefulness, but which in this case is not conspicuous.

In Germany the notion prevails that the colonies cost more than they can possibly ever be worth. The colonial budget for 1907 amounts to 156,000,000 marks, or nearly \$39,000,000; in the past decade they have cost \$171,000,000 without counting special credits, and of this

sum over \$100,000,000 has been spent on military enterprises.

Nevertheless, Germany has become so rich within the past twenty years, says M. Lair, that she can afford the initial expenditure, if,—and this is the crucial point,—her colonies are susceptible of being finally organized to yield a profit. It is a hopeful sign that the working classes, which the Socialists are stirring up against an imperialistic policy, profit by the existence of these dependencies. They, with the saving middle-classes of the Fatherland, consider the world-policy of the Emperor as the logical outcome of Germany's prodigious economic prosperity.

THE WORK OF THE "POLISH MOTHER OF SCHOOLS."

THE first report of its work has just been issued by the greatest educational institution in Poland, the Polish Mother of Schools (*Polska Macierz Szkolna*) of Russian Poland. This report, which covers the period from July 1, 1906, to July 1, 1907, shows the work of the Macierz to have been surprisingly rich in results. It must be borne in mind that the Macierz commenced its work in the period of the greatest confusion in Russian Poland, the period of frightful turbulence, of disorganization, of unprecedented partisan strife, and of a universal epidemic of violent politics. Such conditions generally do not conduce to the development of cultural work. And yet the Polish Mother of Schools persevered and survived the storm. Nay, it had already begun to reap an abundant harvest when Governor-General Skallon (in December last) ordered the closing of the 1600 schools in the kingdom.

Russian reaction soon showed its teeth, and commenced to attack the Macierz. But this strong institution, standing on a legal basis, resolved to conquer all difficulties. At the outset the governors of six provinces of the kingdom questioned the legal right of the Macierz to extend its activity over the whole kingdom; later, the organization met with the systematic restricting by the curator of the Warsaw educational district of the right of founding town and village schools.

Up to July 1, 1907, the chief directory of the Macierz applied to the educational authorities for permission for the opening of 1247 schools, but obtained, the report complains, licenses for the opening of only 681

schools. Of 316 names of teachers submitted by the chief directory in the year for which the report is issued, to the authorities for approval, only 159 received approval.

Some of the administrative regulations with regard to the Macierz are, as the law department of the Macierz points out, directly contrary to the law; as, for instance, the prohibition of the opening of Macierz schools in places in which there are communal schools.

The statistics of the Macierz speak for themselves. The total number of "circles" is 781, with a membership of 116,341. At the institutions of the Macierz that sent in their statements for the period in question 63,000 persons attended studies, 14,401 children were cared for in the asylums, and 400,544 persons used the reading-rooms and libraries. The contributions of the public during this period for the purposes of the circles and of the chief directory reached the sum of 810,673 rubles (\$405,000) without reckoning the value of fixtures and real estate donated to various "circles."

This first report of the Polish Mother of Schools is an answer, observes the *Warsaw Gazeta Codzienna* (the *Daily Gazette*), to those pessimists who constantly assert that the Polish community shows no energy in practical work.

With the funds of the 308 circles whose treasury accounts have not been included in this report of the Macierz the budget of the Polish Mother of Schools will be found to reach 1,000,000 rubles. If we add to this that, according to the calculations of K. Kujawski, we possess in "the kingdom" thirty-one intermediate private schools (without reckoning the girls' boarding-

schools), the maintenance of which costs at least 1,000,000 rubles a year, we shall have the sum of 2,000,000 rubles that our community at present expends for the maintenance of its private schools. In view of our educational needs, this is an insufficient sum. But in view of the state of our community, which has been enfeebled in latter times by economic misfortunes, it is quite a considerable sum, testifying that the capability for work and benevolence in our community has by no means disappeared.

"St. Gr." in the Warsaw *Tygodnik Ilustrowany* (the *Illustrated Weekly*) closes a synopsis of the report of the Macierz with the following observation:

We cannot in this place enumerate all the cultural arrangements in "the kingdom" to the founding of which the Macierz has contributed. On its initiative there have arisen hundreds of institutions,—lower schools and intermediate schools, people's universities, courses for illiterates, people's homes, legal advice sections, pedagogical museums, teachers' seminaries, etc. Despite the short period of its activity, the Macierz has accomplished a great work. To-day nobody will take away from the wide masses of Poland either the knowledge of reading and writing which they have acquired, thanks to the Macierz, or the popularizing information which they have gained, be it in the reading-rooms or at the lectures. This has already become the property of the people.

JAPAN'S FIRST WORLD'S FAIR.

IN spite of the alleged warlike ambitions of Japan, there is reason to believe that the intention of the Tokio administration is to bend all its energies to the encouragement of the arts of peace, and especially the promotion of its economic interests in the Far East. The invitation lately issued by Japan, requesting the nations of Europe and America to participate in the international exposition to be held at Tokio in 1912, is, undoubtedly, indicative of her peaceful intentions. Inasmuch as this new undertaking of Japan has already awakened so much interest in this country as to find encouragement in President Roosevelt's recent message to Congress, it seems opportune to give the nature and scope of the exposition society as described by its president, Viscount Kaneko, in an article in a recent issue of the *Taiyo* (Tokio).

The official title of the coming exposition of Japan will be "The Grand Exposition of Japan." This name was intentionally preferred to the more pretentious name of "world's fair" or "international exposition," for Japan does not wish to appear too ambitious or too sanguine of success in her first undertaking of this nature. According to Viscount Kaneko, this exposition, like those preceding it, will be held (1) to promote the common economic interests of the nations participating in it, (2) to further the education of the world, (3) to foster amicable relationship among nations, and (4) to furnish Japan with an opportunity for a national festival.

Not only have world's fairs proved to be of common economic benefit to all nations, but they have, as the Japanese writer points out, become a powerful means of education. An important feature of modern expositions

is the inauguration as their adjuncts of numerous conventions and conferences. Savants and scientists, philosophers and religious workers, educators and preachers, authors and journalists, come to world's fairs from all parts of the globe to discuss vital problems pertaining to their respective fields of study. To such conferences and congresses the world is indebted not a little for the dissipation of religious and racial prejudices existing among nations. As an instance, Viscount Kaneko points out that, since the world's parliament of religions held at the Chicago fair, the west has not only ceased to cherish absurd prejudices against Buddhism, but has begun to make an earnest effort to study that great religious system.

The third advantage of world's fairs the writer finds in the fact that they improve diplomatic relationships among nations.

The time has passed when international friendships are maintained or destroyed at the pleasure of rulers or governments alone. To-day it is people as well as governments that are responsible for war and peace. Should the people of one country assume a hostile attitude toward those of another country, the amicable relationship between the two states must necessarily be endangered, however desirous to maintain peace their rulers may be. It is, therefore, extremely necessary for the promotion of the world's permanent peace that the peoples of all countries be made to understand one another. No international exposition which does not take this important fact into consideration can be regarded as faithful to its true mission.

As to the fourth aim of the international exposition, the Viscount says that a nation, as well as an individual, needs to be afforded opportunities of amusement. An international exposition is, in a measure, an occasion of grand national fête.

COLOR PHOTOGRAPHY.

IT is known that the Lumière system of color-photography depends for its success upon the fact that the innumerable hues of nature may in reality be looked on as combinations of the three fundamental colors,—red, blue, and green. In addition, dependence is put upon the circumstance that in order to get a composite effect, say purple, it is not necessary that the two colors, red and blue, be each made to cover the entire surface of the object. It is sufficient if the objects be thoroughly well sprinkled with innumerable fine red and blue dots, each color being evenly distributed. To secure the precise shade of purple desired exactly the right proportion of red and blue dots must be combined. The decision as to such combination is not left to the photographer, but is automatically effected by nature herself. This becomes clear in the explanation of the process given by Dr. M. W. Meyer in a recent number of *Ueber Land und Meer*.

To form the sensitive plate the glass is first covered with a layer of very fine grains of starch (potato flour). These grains are of excessive minuteness,—about 80,000,000 being required to cover the surface of three and one-half by four and five-eighth inches. These grains have first been saturated in a color dye, the colors being the three fundamental ones. The glass plate is then covered with a mixture of equal quantities of the three colors. Such a plate will then appear colorless,—or should do so. We have now an approximately even mixture of those colors necessary to produce any natural hue. Bromide of silver, so prepared as to be equally sensitive to all three colors, is now poured over the layer of starch grains, and the sensitive plate is done.

The ordinary camera may be used. One attachment, and but one, is required. This is a "yellow plate," the object of whose use is to correct the arrangement of the modern camera whereby the object-glass focuses the ultra-violet rays upon the sensitive plate. The reason for this in ordinary photography is that such rays affect more decidedly the photographic plate than those which reproduce to the eye the colors of nature. But, for the purposes of color-photography, the spectral colors themselves are desired. The "yellow plate" it is necessary shall be specially adapted to the peculiar Lumière sensitive plate. It is said, on the other hand, to

be suited to the optical arrangement of any modern camera.

The Lumière plate is introduced into the camera with the glass side toward the object-glass. We are now ready for color-photography. In practice it is found necessary to make longer exposures than with the ordinary photographic process. There are two reasons for this: First, we have given up the ultra-violet rays for the rays which express nature more truly, but which are chemically weaker; second, as the object is to affect the bromide of silver, the rays of light must now pass through the starch coating, and so are weakened.

We will now suppose that a many-colored landscape has been properly focused on our plate. The red rays from a red object fall upon the plate, pass through the glass, and fall upon the grains of starch. If the object is a chimney, this chimney will be imaged on the side of the starch coating next the glass. This image will contain within its limits grains of all three fundamental colors. The grains of any one color, or of any combination, would yield an image of the chimney. However, the red rays, imaging the chimney, fall some of them upon red grains of starch, others upon grains of starch which are not red. The former pass through and affect the coating of bromide of silver; the latter are arrested and lost. In the case of a purple object, both red and blue rays succeed in passing through the starch layer and working upon the bromide of silver. And so on, with the various colors and color combinations.

It must still be confessed that we do not have any vestige of colored images on our plate. However, the plate is now taken into a dark-room. This must be a genuine dark-room, as light of any color would have disastrous results. Any one of the usual developers can be used. Metallic silver is now deposited wherever the bromide of silver has been affected by the light. The result of this is to produce a negative having the general appearance of that produced in the ordinary way. No colors yet. Now there is a particular chemical which is a solvent of metallic silver but not of the bromide of silver. Our negative is now introduced into a bath of this preparation. The metallic silver, covering precisely those places affected by the light transmitted through the starch coating, is now dissolved away, and the bromide

of silver where the light did not succeed in getting through is left unaffected. The effect of this removal of the silver is to display the colors of the starch. Red grains appear picturing the form of the chimney. Red grains now also come to light showing the image of the purple object. But, associated with these red grains, are blue ones also appearing and displaying the form of the purple object. The eye will receive both a red and a blue image, the separate elements of which are so mingled and so minute that the two are blended into one purple object, precisely as in nature. And so, with various objects of all colors and combinations of colors.

In bright daylight the plate is put into another bath where black silver is now deposited upon precisely those points where the bromide of silver has so far remained intact. But such points are those which in nature were dark, and so sent no light of any color through the glass plate and starch coating to affect the layer of bromide of silver. The effect of this deposition of black silver is to darken the parts of our plate corresponding to the dark spots of the landscape. We have now,—not a negative,—but a diapositive whose colors and shadings correspond to those of nature. This ends the essential process, although the plate is passed through several other baths to perfect results.

IS OUR WORLD TO BE DESTROYED BY COMETS?

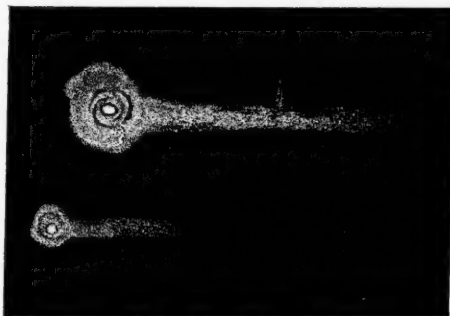
A CAREFUL study of the habits of comets and their actual and possible relations to our own globe is contributed to a recent number of the *Hollandsche Revue*. After recalling the most famous historical prophecies as to the end of the world coming from a collision with a comet,—and reminding us naively that none of them has come true,—the writer points out that at one time there actually was danger that one of these erratic heavenly bodies would come into violent contact with our earth. On this point he says:

Such a dangerous tramp of the heavens did indeed at one time exist, one which seemed to have for its veritable aim the destruction of our globe, the comet of Biela. This moved in a very small ellipse about the sun, returning every six and one-half years to a spot very close to a point in the earth's path which this reaches in the latter part of November. At its arrival in our field of observation, however, it was not always in such position as to be visible to us; so that it had been observed only in 1772 and 1805 before becoming recognized as a comet. In 1826 it was discovered again by the Austrian Captain von Biela, whose name was then given to it. Von Biela proved at the time that it was the same comet as was seen in 1805, and foretold its reappearance in 1832. This prediction soon aroused much anxiety, for the position of the path of this comet,—a position apparently so fraught with peril to our earth,—had become generally known even among the uninitiated. The fear became universal that the destruction of the world might be now at our very doors, and that the last day was at hand. This fear gained such hold upon the common mind that von Littrow, the able director of the Observatory at Vienna, was moved to publish a pamphlet proving this fear to be utterly baseless, since on November 30, 1832, the day when, as seen from our earth, the comet was expected to

reach its crossing point with the earth's orbit, it would in reality be still many millions of miles removed from this. By this all minds were set at rest, and the comet appeared at its post without causing any harm. Von Littrow, however, at the same time predicted that on November 30 of the years 1933 and 2115 this comet would really approach very close to the earth's path, and what then might happen no one could foretell.

According to von Littrow's calculation, we would once more, and that in comparatively few years, be standing on the very brink of destruction. But this peril was also very soon averted, for, since its appearance in 1832, this same comet of Biela has been the cause of new surprises, both as to itself and as to what may happen to its fellow-wanderers.

Far from attacking our globe, it has laid violent hands on itself, has committed hari-kari in fact; for when, in 1846, it became visible again, it had torn itself into two parts, and, in-



BIELA'S COMET.

As it appeared the last time (February 19, 1846).
From the drawing by O. Struve.

stead of the original comet, there appeared two new and smaller ones, which followed each other at a distance of 40,000 miles. In 1852 these broken parts of this twin comet were already 350,000 miles removed from each other, and since then, notwithstanding the most diligent search, nothing has ever again been seen of the comet of Biela. It was supposed at the time that the two parts into which the original comet had split itself no longer possessed sufficient luminosity to enable us to observe them by means of our present instruments. But in 1872, the year when the broken parts of Biela should have come again into view, there appeared instead, exactly at the same place and period, the end of November, an extraordinarily strong shower of stars. The comet of Biela had disappeared from the stage of the universe and had gone the way of all comets,—a splendid confirmation of the theory of Schiaparelli, propounded long before, that comets ultimately resolve themselves into showers of falling stars, so called.

Although, now, so far as we know, no comets have ever come into collision with the earth, such collision has occurred on the part of comets with other planets. Moreover, it is supposed that comets very frequently plunge into the sun without our being able to perceive anything of the fact. The possibility of their collision with the earth is therefore not excluded, since (an additional cause for apprehension) the orbits of comets

are often so small that some can return after a comparatively short time, and their shortness may increase the probability of such collision. The shortest of these comet paths has only a period of three and a half years, while the comet of Halley requires nearly seventy-six years to complete its course. This is the only one of the periodical comets visible with the naked eye, and this will reach its shortest distance from the sun again on May 7, 1910, thus in about two and a half years. The main question now is this: Is there any chance whatever of a collision with the earth on the part of comets? The probability of this, says the writer in the Dutch review, seems to be exceedingly small.

The degree of such probability has been represented in the following manner: The chance of such collision is as small as if some one in a balloon should fire at a globe two feet in diameter (the sun), but should by mistake, instead of that globe, hit a peppercorn (the earth) which was sixty-five meters distant from that globe, thus on the edge of a circle having a surface of 13,000 square meters. According to the law of probabilities, this writer maintains, the chance of the collision of a comet with the earth is only as 1 to 400,000,000.

WHAT MARS IS REALLY LIKE.

AN analytical study by the eminent Austrian astronomer, Johann Palisa, which appears in the *Deutsche Revue* (Berlin) treats of the conditions which prevail upon the planet Mars, giving special attention to the probable explanation of the so-called canals of Schiaparelli. He winds up his argument with a summary which begins thus:

If we sum up briefly what the telescope reveals to us on the surface of Mars we find that that planet is a heavenly body similar to the earth. It has a solid crust, seasons like our globe, is surrounded by an atmosphere, which, though its exact composition is unknown to us, surely contains aqueous vapor. We find that the region about the poles is covered with snow in the winter season; that precipitation, therefore, is not lacking; the melting of the snow-masses furnishes us evidence of climatic conditions not dissimilar to those upon the earth. Upon our sphere we know by experience that wherever on any stretch of land precipitation occurs, even though in sparing quantities; where the temperature rises, if but occasionally, above the freezing point of water, vegetation springs up, accompanied by fauna before long. We may, therefore, assume with great certainty,—

and this is the view of all observers of Mars,—that that planet is capable of sustaining plants and animals. That its surface does actually bear vegetation is attested to us by the changes in the coloring of numerous dark spots coincident with the change of seasons, and by the appearance of previously invisible dark regions and lines.

And now comes the significant and highly interesting question: If planets and animals subsist upon Mars, is the planet also inhabited by intelligent beings, Mars people?

It has been remarked by some astronomers that astronomy has other real problems to deal with and should leave alone such conceits as these. In truth, the astronomer must abandon the field of tangible reality and allow his fancy free play if he wishes to enter into a study of this question.

In the question under consideration it may, in the first place, be said that the existence of Mars-people is very well possible, all the requisite familiar conditions being given. But a further point has been reached,—in the Mars canals the work of man has been positively descried. In fact, the uniformly regular, often perfectly straight, course of these structures, some of

them pursuing a north to south direction, forms a conspicuous moment for that assertion. Whether these canals be in reality of the same breadth throughout, or merely a chain of punctiform structures, the general supposition is that this regularity is not to be wholly ascribed to blind nature. Opinion is almost unanimous that the origin of these canals, as they appear to us, is connected with the flowing down of the polar waters; and what has seemed a particularly striking phenomenon is, that were the canals formations of nature, acting alone, they could not pass beyond the equator, but would have to halt before it. That they extend far beyond the equator furnishes the most important argument for the view that not nature alone but man's agency also, has been at work here; not even the existence of the canals is as indicative of the presence of man as this very circumstance.

If Mars possesses water, the area covered by it, in our estimation, is so small that one may reasonably conclude that there is a great dearth of it upon that planet. And the rare appearance of cloud formations strengthens this view. Now in order to utilize this important element of life to the best advantage, it must be conducted wherever there is fertile soil. The inhabitants of Mars have, therefore, directed the water's course along stretches in which, as soon as the fructifying moisture appears, vegetation is developed. The agency of the inhabitants of Mars has essentially contributed toward the regularity of construction which the canals present. The formations which look to us like canals are not, of course, in their full extent aqueducts; it may, indeed, be that but a very narrow strip of them irrigates the adjacent land. In order to have the water flow beyond the equator the inhabitants of Mars may have constructed peculiar elevating devices, since, as before observed, this phenomenon is hard to explain in any other way.

Let us, in conclusion, repair to a point in the universe which is just as distant from Mars as the earth and as the earth from Mars; I assume here that we know nothing of humanity upon our sphere, and would observe both heavenly bodies only through telescopes; should an angel

come to us and tell us that one of these two planets is inhabited by intelligent beings, and ask us to guess which, we should certainly guess Mars and not the earth, since the earth offers, so far as we can form a picture of it, nothing similar to the changes that take place upon Mars, and does not by any sign betray our presence. But if we admit that Mars is inhabited, the circumstance that it probably could accommodate organic life much earlier than the earth, would lead to the further conclusion that these people have progressed beyond us in culture and in the sciences. Their greatest concern, however, must always be the wisest exploitation of the existing water supply.

Our earth may once share the same fate as Mars,—that the water will steadily diminish. As may be familiar, the temperature of the ground is subject to fluctuations of the seasons: In summer it is higher, in winter lower, but the amount of fluctuation decreases at once upon descending any distance into the earth, and at a depth of only five meters it ceases entirely, and we strike there the average yearly temperature of the locality. But from that point there is a continuous increase of one degree Centigrade for every thirty meters as we proceed into the interior. The earth has still, therefore, very high temperatures in its depths; but unceasingly, even though slowly, the cooling goes on, and a period will some day be reached when the temperature of the outer crust will sink below zero, and only the five meters before referred to will, owing to the sun's rays, show higher temperatures.

While now the water that percolates into the earth is transformed into vapor by the heat of the interior and returns to the surface, the water which in descending will strike strata with temperatures below zero, will freeze and never again reach the surface. What, therefore, is perhaps in store for the earth in millions of years, that has already partially taken place upon Mars, a planet solidified before our own.

THE PROBLEM OF THE ROOMER.

IN every city of any considerable size the roomer is every seventh or eighth man or woman you meet. He may be a day laborer or a city editor, but he represents the ambition, hopefulness, individualism, energy, and persistence of the younger productive ranks of mercantile and mechanic employees. With 90,000 roomers in Boston, one for every 723 in Chicago, one for every 463 in St. Louis, and before the earthquake one for every 233 persons in San Francisco,

what the rooming-house resembles is an interesting topic for discussion.

Professor Albert B. Wolfe, of Oberlin College, accordingly outlines the roomer's problem in *Charities and the Commons* for November 2. The growth of cities and the movements of population within the same city explain the rooming-house districts in our cities. The roomers have come to the city for employment, and the "landladies," for the most part, widows thrown on their

own resources, who turn to the roomer as a last resort. Old four-story family residences are rented,—in New York "brownstone fronts," in Boston "swell fronts," in St. Louis old style Southern mansions, which have been vacated through business changes or the fickleness of residential fashion. At one time nearly all roomers were boarders. To-day the boarding-house has largely disappeared. The effects of this transition are deplorable.

The reader must not fail to understand the difference between the rooming-house and the boarding-house. The boarder sleeps and eats in the same house; the roomer takes his meals at a restaurant. Twenty years ago two-fifths of the "boarders and lodgers" enumerated in the census of Boston were boarders. In 1895 less than one-fifth (17.4 per cent.) were boarders. The percentage of lodgers increased from 60.4 in 1885 to 82.6 in 1895. The further increase which has undoubtedly taken place since 1895 has virtually wiped out the boarding-house. This is true not only of Boston but of several other Massachusetts towns. Statistics are lacking for cities outside Massachusetts, but the probabilities are that the rooming house is everywhere displacing the old-time boarding-house. The causes of this lie in the competition of the cafés and "dining rooms," the fact that it takes less business ability to manage a rooming-house than a boarding-house, and most of all, that the rooming and café habit of life offers much more freedom than did the boarding-house. In the latter one must be on time for meals and must pay whether he eats or not. Moreover, lax as were boarding-house conventionalities, they afforded far more restraints than can be found in the rooming-house. A boarding-house without a public parlor would be an anomaly, while a rooming-house with one is a rarity.

With the passing of the boarding-house went the last vestige of "home" life, for a boarding-house without a public parlor would be an anomaly, while a rooming-house with one is a rarity. The common table with its friendly, if aimless, prattle being removed, the isolation of the roomer followed, which is a real social problem. He knows few people, and these not intimately. He rarely enters a family circle, and becomes a more or less nomadic character,—essentially a floater. The absence of the public parlor is responsible for damming the well-springs of healthy, social intercourse and for throwing the lodger upon his own resources. A girl receives her visitors,—men and women,—either in her room or in the street,—the moral effect of which can easily be deduced.

Landladies cannot afford a parlor, and this is the basis of this drawback. The moral results of such a situation, the writer believes, are a peculiar attitude of mind toward marriage and family; temporary unions and prostitution as substitutes; poignant loneliness; a blind, self-seeking individualism striking at altruistic impulses and moulding existence too closely on lines of the competitive business world. They have no substitute for home life, no opportunity for real recreation or cultural association, and are exposed to conditions which would try the most stable moral consciousness.

The whole situation should be much more thoroughly studied than it has been as yet. Public statistical bureaus should gather details of the rooming-house districts. Public opinion should be aroused. The roomer must be given a social anchorage; the furniture sharks that prey upon the landlady should receive attention. The connection between lodging and prostitution should be studied more carefully. A public parlor should be demanded, even if it be made a prerequisite for a rooming-house license. The boarding-house should be brought back, and the café life resisted in every possible way. Fundamentally, at the bottom of these things are, of course, better education and better wages.

In the same magazine Eleanor H. Woods, of South End House, Boston, writes interestingly of the humanitarian efforts of certain movements in Boston for the social betterment in its lodging districts. A room registry organized at South End House three years ago for the assistance of patrons seeking rooms and to stimulate business methods among the housekeepers has attained a reasonable degree of success. A card catalogue of 150 houses is on file, containing information as to location, price, quality, etc. A charge of 10 cents is imposed for a list of available lodging-houses and a postal to be used if a room is secured by the applicant. Housekeepers are charged one-half a week's rent for a tenancy of three weeks; otherwise, 10 per cent. The neighborhoods are scrutinized carefully and disreputable people ejected. This registry serves as a source of information to patrons of the South End district, and labors for cleanliness and morality.

This writer advances hopefully a suggestion for "boarding club houses" for business women, something on the plan of a private house accommodating twelve or fifteen,

with two or three for household work. An experiment on this line worked successfully in Boston, and for women no longer in the youngest ranks the writer believes such a household would prove a strong attraction, and she advocates a series of houses so organized, under one general management. Free from domestic restrictions, and with relative home surroundings, such houses

would prove superior to the general run of lodging-houses, and would obviate the loss which women feel when "housed in caravansaries where social responsibilities are discouraged by the constant experience of being thrown with so many whom it is impossible to know, and yet in whose company all the significant home functions are daily practiced."

CURIOUS LIFE CYCLES.

AS a study of possibilities in the way of manifestations of vital phenomena, the course of events that takes place in a series of generations of aphids is highly surprising to any one not familiar with the vagaries of nature in the byways of life.

A contribution to the study of life histories of these organisms is published by Dr. A. Mordwilko in a recent number of the *Biologisches Centralblatt* (Leipzig).

Among some of the more common forms of aphids the adults die in autumn and only their eggs are left, hidden in the ground, or under the bark of trees, to maintain the life of the species over winter. Next summer an aphid hatching from one of these eggs becomes the starting point for a series of generations that develop without wings and are unable to move far. All these live on the same plant and feed upon it until the plant begins to wither, as a result of their depredations, and there is a consequent scarcity of food.

Then the aphid shows its powers of rising to the emergency. A new set of eggs is produced that hatches into aphids with wings, and these insects fly away to a new, thrifty plant, where they settle down, and resume the old order of things just as their ancestors of some generations ago did a month or two before.

As the economic result of this, the crops are seriously affected and the farmer suffers such an appreciable loss that it becomes a matter of economy for him to employ the best measures at his command to combat the apparently insignificant enemy.

But the achievement of wings is especially interesting as an instance of a provision of nature for meeting adverse conditions. Wings do not appear at any definite time in the history of the species, but are called forth as a response to external conditions, usually

because the food supply is diminished for some reason, making it necessary for the aphids either to migrate or to die. Literally a case where the spur of adversity brings out latent powers.

The writer goes on to describe still more curious phases of development observed in the more complicated life histories of migrating species of aphids that change their location at different seasons of the year, certain generations spending the autumn and winter on a tree, perhaps, while succeeding generations become emigrants and travel to some herbaceous plant to spend the summer.

Among these there is a wingless form of aphid that takes up its abode underground on the roots of vines, where a continuous succession of generations develops until the approach of winter. Then, when the temperature sinks to about 10 degrees C., the insects become torpid in response to the cold. But during the summer, or in autumn, a new type of descendants appears, winged individuals, that leave their underground retreat for the parts of the vine growing above ground, where they deposit two kinds of eggs, large ones to develop into females, and small ones that will produce males. These insects die, and only the eggs retain their life over winter.

The following spring, a new order of events is inaugurated. From the newly hatched insects there descends a race of aphids that attack the leaves of the vines and cause the curious gall formations found on them. This continues until the last of summer, when the leaves begin to die, and then the aphids wander back to the roots, where they may change directly into the characteristic type that preys on the root, although it is impossible for the converse order of change, of root type directly into gall type of aphid, to take place.

LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

EXPERTS DECLARE THEIR CONFIDENCE.

PERHAPS the first journalistic authority on financial matters is the *Economist* of London. It is reassuring to have the opinion of its editor, Francis W. Hirst, that our panic signified no general rottenness of conduct,—nothing more than a defect in method.

How is it that in the United States alone a collapse of paper values (which in other countries would be regarded with comparative indifference or possibly even welcomed as a sign of returning sanity) should end in a general stoppage of work, a paralysis of distributing agencies, a cash famine, and a general withdrawal from men of ample wealth and credit of the ordinary banking facilities?

After reviewing the few sensational disclosures which brought on the general crash, Mr. Hirst says: "A more deplorable condition of things could hardly exist, or one more injurious to the great majority of American banks, which are clean and sound."

If in every State there had been an official or semi-official bank with the State behind it,—with the kind of relation to other banks in that State which the Bank of England has to other English banks, or the Bank of Germany has to those of Germany, or the Bank of Amsterdam to those of Holland,—the panic-stricken depositors, instead of carrying their currency to safe deposits or hiding it under their beds, would have re-deposited it in the State bank, which would then have been able to afford ample and immediate succor to all sound institutions. The rest, which were not sound or solvent, would have gone very properly into the receivers' hands.

AN OVER-EXPECTED PANIC.

"When Bismarck declared that 'the enemy who fixes a day for his attack is never dangerous,' he uttered a truth which is especially applicable to financial disturbances," says James W. Van Cleave, president of the National Association of Manufacturers, in *The Circle*. Mr. Van Cleave can find no signs that the depression of 1908 "will even remotely resemble those which came in 1818, 1837, 1857, 1873, or 1893."

Everybody who knows the causes of each of our panics, and who takes an intelligent survey of the present situation, will see that almost all those causes are missing now. To-day there is:

No recent great war (as the war of 1812-15 with England, which helped to bring the panic of 1818, or the civil conflict of 1861-65, which

was responsible for several of the factors which aided in precipitating the cataclysm of 1873) with its consequent destruction of property and derangement of industries.

No crop failure (as in 1837).

No railroad-building beyond the country's immediate needs (as in 1857 and in 1873).

No wildcat banking (as in 1818, 1837, and 1857).

No greenback endless chain or silver dilution of the currency (as in 1893) to draw gold out of the Treasury.

No adverse balance of trade (as in 1818, 1837, 1857, 1873, and 1893).

No gold drain to Europe (like we had in all those years) to meet debts of any kind.

No shortage in revenues (as in 1893 and some other panic times).

No menace of any sort or from any quarter (as there was in every one of those five panic years) to our country's monetary system.

FROM AN ENGLISH BANKER.

Some solid comfort is extended to everybody interested in American stocks and bonds by an article in the *Nineteenth Century* of London. It is a personal opinion of peculiar interest, because it comes from J. W. Cross, an English banker of ten years' experience in New York City, during the tumultuous years of 1861-'71. Mr. Cross says:

It is just fifty years since I first became interested in American securities. I have known no other class of investments which have given more satisfactory results during these fifty years, taking the average prices they cost, the interest they have returned, and the average prices at which they can be sold, even at the panic quotations of to-day.

I can say of Wall Street, after ten years' experience there, that it is the most satisfactory place that I know to do business in, notwithstanding all its harassing ups and downs and its hustling. . . . The chief reason why lapses are more marked in New York is that New York is by far the biggest market in the world for stock transactions.

Let us never forget that while there has been a great deal of "simulated prosperity" in the United States, owing to overborrowing, there has at the same time been an increase in the productive power, and a development of real, efficient industrial activity, during the last ten years especially, such as the world has never seen before.

THE COURAGE OF CORPORATIONS.

Give the corporations their due. They have been among America's most courageous,

most useful pioneers. Their cause is well defended by Major Henry L. Higginson in the *Atlantic Monthly*.

Who have built all the mills, the dams, the railroads, the tramways, the gas and electric works, and who have dug the mines? The corporations, made and managed by enterprising, able, thoughtful, patient men. Have they failed or succeeded? They have done both in many, many cases.

If, in the struggle for existence, bargains and railroad rates were made which seemed a hardship to the farmers, is it not fair to ask whence came these iron roadways and how the farmers would have marketed their crops without them? And, moreover, is there a railroad in our broad land that has not been forced to wade through dire distress, if not bankruptcy,—bankruptcy often repeated several times?

The wrecks of cattle companies in our Western States are laughing-stocks because a laugh is the sole return which the owners have ever had; yet the cowboys were paid their wages and the country ate the beef. If the truth were known, very many successful corporations have been built on the ruins of others, and, because the successors have reaped the harvest sown by the original men, they have prospered, but the return on the first and second capital taken together is not large.

After recounting the struggles of the Bell Telephone Company and the Steel Corporation, Major Higginson declares that "most of our great railroads and industrial enterprises have had the same history; and now to us older men who have seen money and hope and life sunk in these colossal tasks arises

strongly the wish that justice should be done to these men and to their numerous supporters, who have bought their bonds and shares, and have waited for returns,—too often in vain."

THE USE OF WALL STREET.

To set, on every important bond and share of stock, a price more accurate than the wisest man in the world could estimate by himself, and to set this price *in advance*, giving stock- and bond-holders ample warning of coming industrial changes,—that is the work of the nation's money barometer known as Wall Street. An editorial in the *New York Evening Post* has this to say on its value:

Wall Street has demonstrated again that it is the financial barometer of the nation. . . . When, during a long period, Wall Street is set foul, foul weather is certain to come.

It is of no avail to call Wall Street "hard names." Whether we like the individuals connected with it or not, the thing they do, in their united capacity, is both useful and indispensable. They bring to bear upon trade and finance a collective judgment which is more valuable than that of any one banker, merchant, manufacturer, or any one group of business men. . . . Hundreds of men, with thousands of millions at stake, give their nights and days to the closest scrutiny of the widest facts obtainable, and their inference, after comparing notes and checking off data, must be nearer the truth than that of observers less skilled.

MAKING MONEY WORK.

PEOPLE who have worked hard for their money, and who now want to work the money itself for all it will bring, are paying serious attention to such articles as *Munsey's Magazine* prints this month, under the title: "A Rare Opportunity for Making Investments."

For the small investor, with a few thousand or even a few hundred dollars,—so few that they must be made to earn every cent that can be squeezed out of them without undue risk,—the 1907 panic has created a rare opportunity.

Of course, it is useless to dodge the fact that the purchaser of any common railroad stock, or of most preferred industrials, is taking a risk. This article is helpful only to those who realize this fact, and who are looking for the least risk and the utmost possible extra gain.

It is utter folly for a small investor to think of buying stocks on margin. His only safe and prudent course is to purchase outright, paying in full for his securities, getting a certificate for them, and putting it carefully away. He can take as few or as many shares as he can pay for,

—a single share, if he so desires, and any broker will be glad to receive his order.

Nor must what is said here be interpreted as a recommendation to purchase any particular security or as a guaranty of profit to the investor. The advice must be accepted exactly as it is given,—in general terms. Securities are now selling at bargain prices and offer a rare opportunity to both large and small capitalists. This stock or that stock may go down still lower, and this investment or that investment may result in loss. No man can tell whether the bottom prices have been reached, or when they will be reached. Dividends, too, may be temporarily or even permanently reduced. Nevertheless, the chances are many to one that any standard American stock or bond purchased now, and held as an investment, will prove a satisfactory and remunerative acquisition.

The lists of railroad and industrial stocks which *Munsey's* suggests as "standard" are given on the next page, with the price and yield to the purchaser, corrected up to the going to press of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

RAILROAD STOCKS.

	Price about.	Yield about.
Atchafson	73	8.2
Baltimore & Ohio	89	6.7
Chicago, Milwaukee, & St. Paul	115	6
Chicago & Northwestern	150	4.6
Delaware & Hudson	166	5.3
Great Northern	123	5.6
Illinois Central	131	5.3
Louisville & Nashville	101	5.9
New York Central	102	5.8
New York, New Haven, & Hartford	140	5.7
Norfolk & Western	68	7.3
Northern Pacific	124	5.6
Pennsylvania	116	6
Reading	109	3.6
Southern Pacific	76	7.8
Union Pacific	126	7.9

INDUSTRIAL STOCKS.

American Car & Foundry (preferred)	90	7.7
American Locomotive (preferred)	91	7.6
American Smelting (preferred)	95	7.3
American Sugar (common)	113	6.1
General Electric	124	6.4
National Biscuit (preferred)	106	6.6
National Lead (preferred)	90	7.7
United States Steel (common)	30	6.6
United States Steel (preferred)	94	7.4
Virginia-Carolina Chemical (pref.)	93	8.6
Western Union Telegraph	59	8.4

BONDS vs. STOCK.

The surest possible way, after all, if you want an income that is absolutely sure, is to buy the right kind of bonds,—not stocks. An experience in proof is told by George Carey in *The Outlook*:

A few years ago the stock of a great corporation was offered to the public at a price remarkably low, considering the fact that dividends were then being paid and rumors of their permanency were being circulated. Here is the actual experience of one investor in that stock. She,—for this particular person was a dressmaker in a small town, who had saved a few hundred dollars,—did not know what the word stock signified. But she did see, thanks to the "tips" of well-meaning friends, that the purchase of this particular stock meant an income of about 9 per cent.

Therefore, this woman, attracted by an extraordinary income, invested her savings in a mere possibility. The earning capacity of the stock was practically untested. Still, she bought in small amounts as it advanced in market price. Suddenly it began to decline, for, as the wise ones knew, its rise had been due to skillful manipulation. The woman, inspired still by well-meaning friends with "tips," continued to buy as the stock went down. When it had reached a point at which the income was about 20 per cent. on the investment the directors decreed a suspension of dividends for an indefinite period. Immediately the stock fell to something less than 10 per cent. of its par value. The poor dressmaker's savings were wiped out. She could not even borrow money, offering her comparatively worthless shares as collateral. No one wanted them.

Had this woman bought the bonds of the same company she would have had an assured income of about 5 per cent. per annum, and principal unimpaired. She could not watch the markets and buy and sell as speculators do, risking all for great profit or utter ruin. What she needed was safety of principal and peace of mind.

PAY FOR STOCKS AND KEEP THEM.

The folly of trying for quick "turns" in the stock market,—selling out for the first small profit possible,—is strongly emphasized by no less a person than a stock broker himself in *The World To-Day*. Of course, nobody should buy stocks anyhow who cannot take risks, but depends on the income. And here comes "A member of the Chicago Stock Exchange," who, against his own interest, advises the small purchaser of stocks to pay cash for them, take them away, and keep them a year or two:

Is the present a favorable time for speculation in securities? For what is termed a "long pull," yes. Manipulation, which has been so marked a feature of the speculative market for the past three years, still continues, and the financial strength of these operators is so great that the market may be moved up or down a considerable number of points, even at times directly contrary to the general situation. I therefore believe that in the uncertainty which exists as to financial matters attempts at so-called "quick turns" in the market are not advisable.

One can, however, easily discover high-grade railroad and industrial stocks which, even should these companies be forced by a reaction in mercantile business to reduce their dividends, would still bring a good return on the prices at which to-day they may be bought. With a Presidential year ahead of us we can not expect much expansion, but it is generally conceded that the fundamental conditions of the country are such that we are not apt to have a protracted period of depression.

With fair crops in 1908, and the election out of the way, the country should rouse again to activity in commercial and manufacturing lines, under which condition, coupled with a normal money situation, much higher prices for securities will doubtless be seen.

THE FIRST TO RISE IN PRICE.

It is the high grade bonds and the preferred railroad stocks that will be the first to rise from panic prices, according to the scientific argument of Byron W. Holt, editor of *Moody's Magazine*. The boom in railroad common stocks and industrials will follow. Mr. Holt's opinion is based on the likelihood of a plentiful money supply during the first half of 1908. Also, this is "what ordinarily happens after a panic. First, the most secure securities rise; then the less secure securities rise; and finally, when earnings are best, the insecure securities rise."

Now the "most secure" are evidently (1) Railroad bonds directly secured; (2) other bonds of sound railroad companies; (3) preferred railroad stocks, whose dividend must be paid before any dividends on the common stock.

Not only will hoarded money be invested in good securities, but large amounts of money will be withdrawn from savings banks and put into these securities. By next June the rise in this class of securities may be pretty well over and the tide of investment will then turn to the less secure grades of securities,—

the common stocks of railroads and the preferred and, in some instances, the common stocks of the industrials.

The following tables of prices and yields of bonds and preferred stocks will give investors an idea of the great bargains now to be had in the "most secure" securities:

HIGH GRADE RAILROAD BONDS.

Name of bonds.	High price in 1906.	Low price in 1907.	Late prices.	Yield per cent.
Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé guaranteed 4s, 1905.....	104½	89½	96	4.21
Atlantic Coast Line 1st 4s, 1952.....	102½	82	88	4.80
Baltimore & Ohio preferred 3½s, 1925.....	97½	85¾	91	4.38
Chesapeake & Ohio consolidated 5s, 1939.....	119½	101	107½	4.41
Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, Illinois Division, 3½s, 1949.....	95½	82½	86	4.41
Missouri, Kansas & Texas 1st 4s, 1990.....	103	89½	94	4.33
Norfolk & Western Consolidated 4s, 1996.....	102½	86	92½	4.41
Reading general 4s, 1997.....	102¾	86½	93	4.38
Southern Pacific refunding 4s, 1955.....	97¾	82	88	4.78
Union Pacific consolidated 4s, 1946.....	102	78¾	84¾	5.11
Wabash 1st 5s, 1939.....	119	99¾	105¼	4.61

GOOD RAILROAD BONDS.

Name of bonds.	High price in 1906.	Low price in 1907.	Late prices.	Yield per cent.
Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé adjustable 4s, 1995.....	97¾	77	83	5.01
Baltimore & Ohio general 4s, 1948.....	105½	88	96½	4.22
Central Railroad of Georgia consolidated 5s, 1945.....	114½	85	98	5.12
Colorado & Southern 1st 4s, 1929.....	96½	75	82½	5.64
Delaware & Hudson consolidated 4s, 1916.....	112¾	88	95	4.83
Lake Shore debenture 4s, 1928.....	101¾	83	88¾	5.04
Northern Pacific general 3s, 2047.....	78½	62½	68½	5.18
Pennsylvania convertible 3½s, 1912.....	105¾	86¼	91¼	5.77
Pennsylvania convertible 3½s, 1915.....	101	83¼	88¼	5.53
Union Pacific convertible 4s, 1927.....	...	78¾	85	5.70

PREFERRED RAILROAD STOCKS.

Name of stock.	Dividend rate. Per cent.	High price in 1906.	Low price in 1907.	Late prices.	Yield per cent.	Margin of safety.* per cent.
Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé.....	5	106	78½	84¾	5.93	13.10
Chicago, Milwaukee, & St. Paul.....	7	218	130	125¾	5.56	21.78
Chicago & North Western.....	8	240	126	137¾	5.81	63.52
Colorado & Southern 1st.....	4	73¾	41	41¾	7.73	18.50
Great Northern.....	7	348	107½	117¾	5.94	7.55
Missouri, Kansas, & Texas.....	4	76	53	56¾	7.05	24.33
Reading 1st.....	4	96	73	78	5.13	25.60
Southern Pacific.....	7	120½	100	106¾	6.58	27.49
Union Pacific.....	4	99¼	75	78	5.00	31.02

* This means the ratio of the surplus earnings (after paying the preferred dividend) to the amount of the preferred stock. Thus the Missouri, Kansas & Texas has sufficient earnings to pay its preferred dividend six times more; the Chicago, Milwaukee, & St. Paul three times more, etc.

THE VALUE OF A BANKER.

GO to your banker as you go to your doctor or your lawyer,—before things happen. If you wait till after you invest, it may be too late. It is nothing to be ashamed of, that the average busy man or woman may lack the professional training to distinguish a legitimate opportunity from an unscrupulously offered fraud.

An anecdote to this effect is told by George Carey in *The Outlook* under the title "Investing Money":

In a small Western town there lives to-day a young widow whose husband, a physician, died a few years ago, leaving her a home and some \$40,000 in life insurance. It so chanced that this young woman was wholly unfamiliar with financial matters. A friend of her husband, a man

destined to become later a great financier and world-builder, called upon her. To him she confided her perplexities. Then this man, simply, as great men speak, made clear to her the essential principles of investment. Doubtless he was all unconscious of laying down rules. Yet this is what he said: "Mrs. Blank, you must place your money where the safety of your principal is assured. That is the first consideration. You should also be able to exercise control over your principal,—that is, to convert it, or at least a part of it, into cash with readiness should occasion arise. Finally, we must find for you securities that will return the largest possible income consistent with the first two requirements, and that promise to increase in market value, under normal conditions."

These principles are fundamental. They should be applied to the selection of any form of investment whatsoever.

BANKER AND INVESTOR INTRODUCED.

It is even more important for the small investor than for the capitalist to get into touch with the right kind of a banking-house. An introduction of some sort was helpful to the average stranger who came into Wall Street last winter, to choose among the many stock and bond bargains.

"In a good many cases," says an article in the *World's Work*, "he made the mistake of sending his money by mail to some widely advertised, clever, alluring brokerage house with no reputation except the one it gave itself by advertising in untrustworthy newspapers and equally untrustworthy periodicals. But in the large majority of cases he made no mistakes. He knew what he wanted: he knew what he would pay: he found out the right place to go. In a very large proportion of cases he came himself, bringing his money on his person."

If he had been in the Street before, he came with a letter of introduction from his banker. Without it he found the best and most satisfactory houses in Wall Street closed to him. For, strange as it may seem, many houses demand such an introduction even from the man who carries specie or bills with him to pay for what he buys. In times of panic, such as the first week or so in November, checks on out-of-town banks were not accepted in payment unless certified. Dozens of men came into town to make purchases and went back without them, merely because they had failed to realize the necessities of the case.

Every small investor intending to buy stocks or bonds should see to it that these little preliminaries are observed. If he has a connection with a good banker, then he is all right. His checks need not be certified except in actual panic, when banks are under suspicion. But if

he has to make a connection, he should first select his banker with the most minute care; then bring or send a good introduction; then clinch the argument of good standing by paying for his purchases in certified checks or in cash. Under such circumstances he will be a welcome and honored customer in any good banking-house.

THE BANKER OR THE TIPSTER?

Sharp and bitter is apt to be the correction of those who spend their capital at the bidding of any but a responsible banker. An amazing case in proof is the actual record of the most brilliant and powerful of all advertising tipsters, Thomas W. Lawson, of Boston. In *Success*, Frank Fayant writes:

Lawson has traded in copper shares for thirty years; he has bought and sold more copper shares than any other man in the world. He has bought and sold copper mines; he has investigated 2000 copper-mining propositions; he has sold many millions of dollars of copper shares to the public; and he has put the bulk of his own fortune into these shares. He is a recognized copper authority in Boston, the home of the copper industry. "If there is one thing I know," says he, "it is copper."

The actual price per share of Amalgamated, a stock largely dealt in by the outside public on Mr. Lawson's say-so, rose from \$43 a share in 1904 to \$121 in January, 1907,—and dropped to \$41 by October. But "Mr. Lawson cried 'Sell!' all the way up, and, turning at the very top of the copper boom, cried 'Buy!' all the way down. It is probably the worst record any prophet has ever made."

In justice Mr. Fayant explains that Mr. Lawson was himself deceived, through expecting a new invention to lower the price of copper. The invention didn't work.

SIGNS OF THE TIMES.

EXACTLY what is happening to American business, now that the panic has passed, is plainly pointed out by those national news items which financiers always watch keenly as signs of the times. Just now, business men, and investors generally, find them of peculiar importance. Below the latest of them are summarized and compared with former periods,—pig iron output from *The Iron Age*; bank clearings and railroad gross earning from the *Financial Chronicle* and the *Wall Street Journal*, and business failures from *Dun's Review*. Taken together, they look as if the worst was over.

PIG IRON.

Pig iron production is at its lowest for seven years past, excepting only one period at the beginning of 1904. In December it sank nearly one-third below November, and nearly one-half below December, 1907.

	Dec., 1907.	Nov., 1907.	Dec., 1906.
Total tons for United States	1,234,279	1,828,125	2,236,153

BANK CLEARINGS.

As far as may be judged from the falling off in bank clearings compared with last year, the nation is cutting down its trade by about

one-fifth. New York City clearings, in the table below, appear to have shrunk much more than a fifth, but part or all of this shrinkage is accounted for by the slackness in speculation on the New York stock exchanges,—not by any contraction in real industry.

	New York City.	All other cities.
	Per cent.	Per cent.
Decrease from 1907 figures.		
Week ending January 4, 1908.....	37.2	19.9
Week ending January 11, 1908.....	37.2	16.6
Week ending January 18, 1908.....	19.7	18.4

The situation becomes plainer if one glances at the latest detailed figures obtainable, which follow. They show that so far from falling off one-fifth, or 20 per cent., Chicago and St. Louis show losses of less than 6 per cent. and 9 per cent., respectively. Only Boston and New Orleans lost as much as New York.

Week ending January 18, 1908.	1907.	Decrease.
		Per cent.
New York.....	\$1,468,736,052	\$1,828,621,307 19.7
Boston.....	149,463,388	199,656,201 25.1
Philadelphia....	107,249,313	124,457,769 13.8
Baltimore.....	22,069,619	25,103,766 12.1
Chicago.....	189,933,377	201,210,340 5.9
St. Louis.....	54,137,823	59,410,667 8.9
New Orleans....	17,560,669	22,040,714 20.3
Seven cities, 5 days.....	\$2,008,610,241	\$2,560,500,764 21.6
Other cities, 5 days.....	352,076,298	426,748,294 17.5
Total all cities, 5 days.....	\$2,360,686,539	\$2,987,249,058 21.0
All cities, 1 day (estimated.)	450,118,926	455,820,669 1.3
Total all cities for week....	\$2,810,805,465	\$3,443,069,727 18.4

RAILROAD EARNINGS.

Railroad earnings are falling off very badly. Although the "gross" figures below for December are only 4.37 per cent. behind those of a year before, the actual loss to the railroads in net income will be more than 10 per cent. during December, since operating expenses are eating up about 10 per cent. more of the gross earnings this year.

Month of December,	1907.	1906.	Decrease.	Per cent.
Gr's earnings, (50 roads).	\$67,856,800	\$70,953,201	\$3,096,401	4.37

Even more depressing is the record for the first week of January. The first thirteen roads reporting earned 14 per cent. less than they did in the same period of 1907. The wise railroad management meets this slackening by cutting down expenses, laying off crews, and postponing improvements, until passengers and freight stir more actively.

COMMERCIAL FAILURES.

Commercial failures made 1907 a bad year, but there have been worse. Many more firms went under than during 1906, but not as many as in 1904, 1903, or in any one of the six years ending with 1898. The total amount of money lost, however, was less than in 1893 or 1906. Another cheerful fact is that the final sources of our wealth,—farm products,—are valued for 1907 at 10 per cent. more than in 1906. Most of the 1907 trouble seems to have come from too much manufacturing; \$106,000,000 was lost this way, as against only \$45,000,000 during 1906.

COMMERCIAL FAILURES FOR FIFTEEN YEARS.

Year.	No.	Liabilities.	Average.
1907.....	11,725	\$197,385,225	\$16,134
1906.....	10,682	119,201,515	11,159
1905.....	11,520	102,676,172	8,912
1904.....	12,199	144,202,311	11,820
1903.....	12,069	155,444,185	12,879
1902.....	11,615	117,476,769	10,114
1901.....	11,002	113,092,376	10,279
1900.....	10,774	138,495,673	12,854
1899.....	9,337	90,879,889	9,733
1898.....	12,186	130,662,899	10,722
1897.....	13,351	154,332,071	11,559
1896.....	15,088	226,036,134	14,992
1895.....	13,197	173,196,060	13,124
1894.....	13,885	172,992,856	12,458
1893.....	15,242	346,779,889	22,751

STARTING THE WHEELS SLOWLY.

Although at last business men are able to borrow the money they need to run their wheels of manufacturing and trade, they are not starting up with a rush. *Bradstreet's* of January 11 says that "Industry is, as a whole, on short time."

On January 18, the reports to this journal show "improvement in collections. A survey of the entire situation, financial, commercial and industrial, indicates improvement along conservative lines, although it is probable that a relatively smaller volume of spring trade will be done."

Many important cases are reported of resumption: the American Tin Plate Company mills at Newcastle, the Pittsburg Steel Company plant at Glassport, a number of factories in Cincinnati, and some mills in Buffalo. In Chicago, the steel, wire, brass, wood, and leather working concerns generally have reopened.

These instances are significant. Collections are better than in December. But, on the whole, "jobbers report trade quiet, and merchants disposed to reduce stocks rather than anticipate requirements."

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

NEW VOLUMES OF HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

A new history of the United States and its people is projected by the Harpers. Five volumes of the twenty-six which will complete the enterprise have already been issued. The series is entitled "The American Nation: A History, from Original Materials by Associated Scholars." The editor of the series, Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, declares in the introduction to the first volume that the work is to treat "the people combined into a political organization, with a national tradition, a national purpose, and a national character." Each volume is to be written by an expert for laymen, and to contain a portrait of some man especially eminent within the field covered. The titles of the volumes already issued will indicate the general viewpoint of the entire series. The first is "European Background of American History," and is written by Dr. Edward Potts Cheyney, of the chair of history in the University of Pennsylvania. Professor Cheyney, assuming that American civilization is a transplanted growth, believes it necessary to a true understanding of our national history to consider European conditions. "The Basis of American History" is the title of the second volume, by Dr. Livingston Farrand, professor of anthropology at Columbia. It consists of a review of the physical features of North America as influencing the history of our people. Volume III. is entitled "Spain in America," and is by Dr. Edward Gaylord Bourne (history, Yale). It includes not only an account of the discovery and exploration of our continent by the Spaniards, but a full consideration of the entire Spanish colonial system. Volume IV., "England in America," is by President Lyon Gardiner Tyler, of William and Mary College. It treats of the early, formative period in our national history. Volume V. is by Dr. Charles McLean Andrews (history, Johns Hopkins), and is entitled "Colonial Self-Government."

"The New Harmony Movement" is the somewhat ambiguous title given to a volume by George B. Lockwood (Appletons). In the interest of clearness we can assure the reader that the work has no reference to any new movement in the direction of sociological harmony, but is entirely concerned with the history of two important communities which had their seat at the village of New Harmony, Ind. The first of these was the settlement of the Rappites, early in the nineteenth century, which after ten years gave place to the society founded by Robert Owen. Both of these were exceedingly interesting social and industrial experiments. In connection with the Owen community especially there were educational features of unusual interest. It is claimed for the New Harmony community that it was a pioneer in the establishment of infant schools, kinder-

gartens, trade schools, and industrial schools as a part of the free public-school system.

A noteworthy contribution to American scholarship has just appeared in the posthumous history of "The Mongols" (Little, Brown & Co.), by Jeremiah Curtin, with a sympathetic introduction by President Roosevelt. The late Jeremiah Curtin, one of the most remarkable of modern linguists and a deep student of Asiatic as well as eastern European history, de-



THE LATE JEREMIAH CURTIN.

voted a great portion of the last years of his life to a study of the origin, development, history, and disappearance of the Mongols as a world power. He had just completed his work when death terminated his career. In the work just issued, which is one of two in which the sum of his studies on this subject will be published, he considers the campaigns and conquests of Jenghis Khan and his successors in China, Russia, Arabia, and Persia, bringing the narrative down to the first part of the fifteenth century. A second book, to be entitled "Russia Under the Mongols," will appear later. Besides his translations of the great novels of Henrik Sienkiewicz, it will be remembered that Mr. Curtin was author of a number of works with early historical, mythological, and folk-lore subjects, including: "The Myths and Folk-Lore of Ireland," "Hero Tales of Ireland," "Myths and Folk-Tales of the Russians, Western Slavs, and Magyars,"

"Creation Myths of Primitive America," and others.

A new edition of Dr. Lewis H. Morgan's "Ancient Society" has been brought out in clear, readable type by Holt.

Apropos of the centennial anniversary of Fulton's successful application of steam to navigation and also of the coming celebration of the tercentenary of Henry Hudson's discovery of the great river which bears his name, a little volume entitled "Old Steamboat Days on the Hudson River," by David Lear Buckman, has

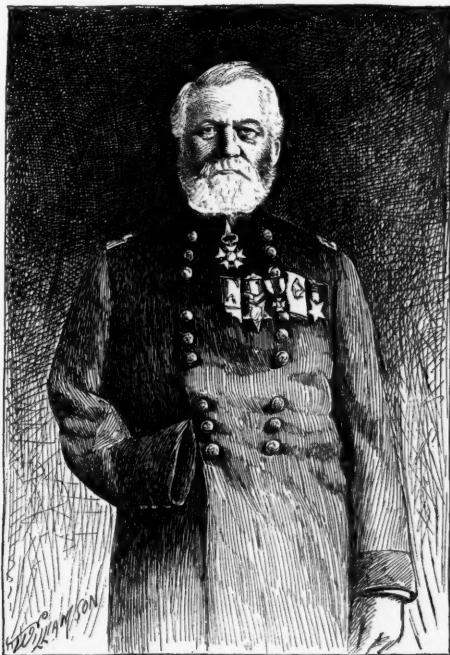


ROBERT FULTON.

(First of the Hudson River steamboat men.)

been issued by the Grafton Press, of New York. This volume is full of entertaining reminiscences and anecdotes relating to the development of steam navigation, with full descriptions of the various mechanical improvements that have been introduced in recent years. Although these improvements have been noteworthy, it is somewhat surprising to the reader who has never before investigated the matter that boats of fifty years ago had records for speed that are only slightly surpassed by their successors of to-day. Steamboating in those days was a far more exciting calling than it is to-day, and the 150 miles of river between New York and Albany had its full share of romance.

A scholarly history of "The Navy of the American Revolution" has been prepared by Dr. Charles O. Paullin (Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company). In all other histories of our Revolutionary navy the narrative is practically confined to the movements of the ships at sea and the details of the naval battles. In the present work the point of view adopted is



GEN. O. O. HOWARD.

that of administration. It was truly a task worthy of modern historical scholarship to bring into our view the actual administrative machinery of the Revolutionary navy. To do this it was necessary to review and analyze the work of naval committees, secretaries of marine, navy boards, and naval agents. In this volume Dr. Paullin has narrated not only the history of the continental navy, but has included in the scope of his history the separate navies of the individual States.

The autobiography of Oliver Otis Howard, in two volumes (New York: The Baker & Taylor Company), contains, besides the personal experiences of Major-General Howard, a full account of many of the most important military movements of the Civil War, together with narratives of a number of Indian campaigns in the West. General Howard's personality has for many years been a familiar one in this country outside of military circles because of his wide and active interest in religious and philanthropic movements. His autobiography embraces much material bearing on these various lines of endeavor.

"The Life and Correspondence of James McHenry," by Dr. Bernard C. Steiner (Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company), gives the life record of a surgeon upon Washington's staff who in later years served as Secretary of War under both Washington and Adams. Dr. McHenry was never characterized either by his contemporaries or by more recent historians as one of the great men of the Revolutionary period, but he enjoyed an intimate personal acquaintance with Washington, Hamilton, Lafayette, and

many other leading spirits of that era. His correspondence, most of which now sees the light for the first time, contains many important references to persons and events that have long since become historic. A striking feature of the book is its frontispiece, which is a reproduction in color of a miniature painting of George Washington now owned by the heirs of Dr. McHenry.

A biography of the second Napoleon, which has been properly entitled "The King of Rome," comes to us from the Knickerbocker Press. It is by Victor von Kubinyi, and is a historical study of the brief career and historic background of the unfortunate child of the great Napoleon. The volume is made additionally interesting by a number of supplements, which include a genealogy of the house of Bonaparte, tracing the descent to the Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte, at present Attorney-General of the United States. A number of other portraits are added.

SOCIOLOGY AND ECONOMICS.

Principal Booker T. Washington, of Tuskegee, has written an informing book on "The Negro in Business" (Chicago: Hertel, Jenkins & Co.). In his travels through the country Mr. Washington has become acquainted with many colored men and women engaged in various lines of business and illustrating in their careers the opportunities and possibilities open to that people in their various lines of endeavor. In this book he enumerates many of these instances for the purpose of encouraging other men and women of the race to win success in similar business channels. Some of the industrial communities organized by negroes in the South are described at length, and there is a helpful discussion of the general subject of industrial education and of the negro's commercial and social relations with the South bearing directly on his business activity.

Chancellor James Roscoe Day, of Syracuse University, in a volume entitled "The Raid on Prosperity" (Appletons), attempts a defense of the Standard Oil Company and other corporations charged at the present time with unethical practices in their methods of conducting business. Chancellor Day believes that the Government at Washington has been guilty of acts "unwarranted by our Constitution and in their tendency destructive to our liberties and the progress of our commerce." "A lawmaking, court-controlling executive department, a government by commissions, a personal construction of the Constitution," he declares, "is not a republic."

In the series of prize essays in economics which owes its existence to the generosity of Messrs. Hart, Schaffner, and Marx, of Chicago, one of the most timely monographs is that contributed by Dr. Albert N. Merritt on the subject of "Federal Regulation of Railway Rates" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Dr. Merritt believes that federal control of rates is necessary in this country and presents a rational plan for such control. Another topic treated in this series is "Ship Subsidies." Mr. Walter T. Dunmore, instructor in the Western Reserve Law School, has investigated the policy of subsidizing merchant marines. A good bibliography accompanies Mr. Dunmore's essay.

In the "Citizen's Library" (Macmillan) a

very useful handbook on "International Commercial Policies" has been compiled by Prof. George M. Fisk, of the University of Illinois. This volume covers the whole range of tariffs, customs, reciprocity, trade promotion, and navigation. The material is arranged upon a wholly new plan, which has special reference to the needs of the student and the general reader.

MUSIC.

Two recently issued histories of music approach the subject from different view-points. The notes for a philosophical music left by the late John K. Paine (Harvard), bringing the subject down to Schubert, have been collected and edited by Albert A. Howard and brought out in a volume (Ginn) entitled "The History of Music to the Death of Schubert." It is much to be regretted that Professor Paine did not live to carry out his scholarly idea of what a history of music should be. Dr. Waldo Selden Pratt, who occupies the chair of music and hymnology in the Hartford Theological Seminary, on the other hand, has made his "History of Music" (G. Schirmer, New York) a handbook and guide for students. It contains helpful illustrations, and is so arranged typographically as to make the information it contains very accessible.

Three new numbers in the Musician's Library, being issued by Oliver Ditson, are "Twenty Piano Compositions by Franz Joseph Haydn, edited by Xaver Scharwenka; "Wagner Lyrics for Baritone and Bass," edited by Carl Armbruster, and "The Piano Compositions of Johann Sebastian Bach," in two volumes, edited by Ebenezer Prout.

Two little descriptive and interpretive volumes on music of recent issue are "The Appreciation of Music," being a course of study for schools, colleges, and the general reader, edited (Novello) by Thomas Whitney Surette and Daniel Gregory Mason, and "Half-Hour Lessons in Music" (in the Music Student's Library, issued by Ditson), by Mrs. Hermann Kotzschmar.

Volume III. of the "Music-Lover's Calendar," edited by Henri J. van den Berg, comes to us from Breitkopf and Härtel. This number is pleasantly illustrated with portraits and other illustrations.

A useful handbook for the opera and concert goer is Lawrence Gilman's "Stories of Symphonic Music" (Harper), offering in book form information which will conduce to the intelligent hearing of orchestral and other music. Mr. Filson Young, also, has prepared a suggestive volume of "The Wagner Stories" (McClure, Phillips), while Mr. S. H. Hamer has treated the same subject from a more strictly musical viewpoint in his little volume with colored illustrations, "The Story of 'the Ring'" (Dodd, Mead).

REFERENCE BOOKS.

The development of the work of reference to its highest form of usefulness is one of the characteristics of modern publishing. Many valuable text-books of reference are appearing constantly from presses of this country and Europe. Among the less pretentious works of this kind, but eminently useful in their character, are two works of historical tabulation and a fine monograph on the commercial plants of the world. From Holt we have the "Atlas of European

History," compiled by Earle W. Dow, junior professor of history in the University of Michigan. This excellent work gives a history,—for the first time in English, we believe,—almost exclusively by maps and charts, of the different peoples of Europe. The most authoritative of the larger special atlases, Dr. Dow tells us, were consulted in the preparation of this volume. A new edition of Mr. George Palmer Putnam's "Tabular Views of Universal History" (Putnam's) consists of a series of chronological tables presenting in parallel columns a record of the noteworthy events in the world's history from the earliest times down to 1907. The new edition contains a number of important features. "The World's Commercial Products" is the title given to a handsome illustrated, descriptive account (391 pages in quarto) of the economic plants of the world and their commercial uses. The work is compiled by Mr. W. G. Freeman and Mr. S. E. Chandler, of the Imperial Institute, London, and brought out by Ginn & Co. The title would indicate that the world's commercial products of a mineral and animal nature will be treated in later volumes.

The second volume of the Catholic Encyclopedia (New York: Robert Appleton & Co.), including articles in the first two letters of the alphabet, tends to confirm the impression as to the scholarship and conservatism of its editors made by the first volume. It is a valuable work of reference for all matters of Catholic doctrine, discipline, and history, and although Protestants will be inclined to take issue with some of its statements of fact, there is slight ground for fault-finding with regard to the spirit in which matters of controversy are treated. The use of this work should tend to dissipate erroneous opinions held by non-Catholics and to break down unwarranted prejudice. The work has a value not only for Catholics, but for the general reader of whatever religious belief.

A useful work which is in some danger of being mistaken by the layman for a technical law treatise because of its sheep binding and legal title, "Commercial Precedents" (Hartford: American Publishing Company), is made up of the replies and decisions printed from time to time in the *New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin* under the editorship of Mr. Charles Putzel, of the New York bar, who is one of the tax commissioners for Greater New York. Mr. Putzel has accomplished the difficult task of compiling a work on this subject which is applicable to conditions in all the States of the Union. It is an indispensable work of reference for every business man. Every-day law questions, such as could not from the nature of the case be conveniently submitted to an attorney, are here answered clearly, fully, and authoritatively.

A new legal work of more than ordinary importance is "A Treatise on the Law of Naturalization of the United States," by Frederick Van Dyne, American consul in Jamaica (Washington: published by the author). Recent sweeping changes in our laws, which practically revolutionize the methods of naturalization and place the matter under the control of the central bu-

reau in the Department of Commerce and Labor at Washington, have rendered necessary a work of this character. Mr. Van Dyne's treatise is strongly commended by Prof. John Bassett Moore, of Columbia University, and by other eminent law authorities. Mr. Van Dyne is the author of a work on "Citizenship of the United States" and an accepted authority on the subject.

BOOKS OF VARIED INTEREST.

Two volumes of particular interest to students of biology are: "The Nature and Origin of Life" (A. S. Barnes & Co.), being a translation by Stoddard Dewey from the French of Prof. Felix le Dantec, who is a member of the faculty of the Sorbonne; and "Plant Breeding" (Open Court Publishing Company), being comments on the experiments of Nilsson and Burbank, by Dr. Hugo de Vries, professor of botany in the University of Amsterdam.

The result of the investigations in psychological research made by European savants during the past decade has been summarized and graphically set forth by that poetic French astronomer, Camille Flammarion, in a large volume entitled "Mysterious Psychic Forces" (Small, Maynard & Co.). A number of diagrams and other illustrations supplement the text.

A pleasantly told "literary journey" by Katharine Lee Bates (professor of English at Wellesley College) appears from the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co., under the title from "Gretna Green to Lands End."

Three brochures recently issued by Susanna Cocroft are: "Ideals and Privileges of Woman," "Growth in Silence," and "Character as Expressed in the Body." The last title gives the keynote to the three, which are styled the "Know Thyself" series. These brochures are published by the Physical Culture Extension Society (Chicago).

The really remarkable dramatic work of Gabriel d'Annunzio which created, a year or so ago, such a commotion in Italy,—*"The Daughter of Jorio,"*—has been translated from the Italian by Charlotte Porter and brought out by Little, Brown & Co. It is a tragedy of the country of Abruzzi, that corner of Italy to which "ever clings an elemental savor of the savage blood of the ancient race."

The poems of Robert Bruce, complete in three volumes,—under the titles "Leaves of Gold," "Wanderers," and "Scottish Poems,"—have been brought out by the Bryant Union Company in New York.

A collection of touching and impressive "Stories of Jewish Home Life," translated from the German by S. H. Mosenthal, has been brought out by the Jewish Publication Society.

Mr. John L. Given's "Making a Newspaper" (Holt) is a detailed account of the business, editorial, reportorial, and manufacturing organization of a large city daily. Mr. Given was recently a member of the staff of the New York *Evening Sun*, and has run the gamut of all he tells us. Some anecdotes and actual experiences add to the interest of the volume.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED.

- Abnormal Christians. By Charles Roads. Jennings & Graham.
- Alarcon's El Sombrero de Tres Picos. Edited by Benjamin F. Bourland. Holt.
- American Jewish Year Book, 1907-1908. Jewish Publication Society.
- American Liberal Education. By Andrew F. West. Scribners.
- American Scene, The. By Henry James. Harpers.
- Andrew Jackson. By William G. Brown. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Aristocracy of Health, The. By Mary F. Henderson. Harpers.
- Automobilist Abroad, The. By Francis Miltoun. L. C. Page & Co.
- Bible for Young People, The. Century.
- Black Trail of Anthracite, The. By S. R. Smith. Kingston, Pa.
- British Colonial Policy, 1754-1765. By G. L. Beer. Macmillan.
- British State Telegraphs. By Hugo R. Meyer. Macmillan.
- By-Ways of Virginia History. By R. H. Early. Everett Waddey Company, Richmond, Va.
- Campaigning with Grant. By Gen. Horace Porter. Century.
- Captain Lettarblair. By Marguerite Merington. Bobbs-Merrill.
- Carrier Crisis, The. By Augustine Gallagher. F. J. Heer, Columbus, Ohio.
- Cathedral Cities of France. By Herbert Marshall. Dodd, Mead & Co.
- Causes of the Panic of 1893. By W. Jett Lauck. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Chemistry of Commerce, The. By Robert K. Duncan. Harpers.
- Christianity and Modern Culture. By Charles G. Shaw. Jennings & Graham.
- Chronological and Alphabetical Record of the Engagements of the Civil War. By Charles R. Cooper. Caxton Press, Milwaukee.
- Confessions of a Monopolist, The. By Frederic C. Howe. Public Publishing Company, Chicago.
- Conflict and Victory. By William S. Cochrane. Jennings & Graham.
- Currency and Coin. By Richard B. Pullan, New York.
- Darwinism To-day. By Vernon L. Kellogg. Holt.
- Declaration of Independence, Its History. By John H. Hazelton. Dodd, Mead & Co.
- Documentary History of Reconstruction. (2 volumes.) By Walter L. Fleming. Arthur H. Clark Company, Cleveland.
- English Patents of Monopoly. By William H. Price. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Englishwoman in the Philippines, An. By Mrs. Campbell Dauncey. Dutton.
- Enterprise and the Productive Process. By Frederick B. Hawley. Putnam.
- Factory Legislation in Pennsylvania. By J. Lynn Barnard. John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia.
- Familiar Letters of James Lowell. (2 volumes.) Houghton, Mifflin.
- Fitz Randolph Traditions. By L. V. F. Randolph. New Jersey Historical Society.
- Florence and Northern Tuscany. By Edward Hutton. Macmillan.
- Franklin Year Book, The. By Wallace Rice. A. C. McClurg & Co.
- French Syntax and Composition. By W. U. Vreeland and William Koren. Holt.
- Friendly Chat About Mind Reading, A. By Page A. Cochran, Essex Junction, Vt.
- From Poverty to Power. By James Allen. Science Press, Chicago.
- Gaining Health in the West. By George B. Price. Huebsch.
- Gettysburg and Lincoln. By Henry S. Burrage. Putnam.
- Handy Book of Card Games. By Belle M. Walker. Crowell.
- Handy Book of Synonyms. Crowell.
- Herbart and Froebel: An Attempt at Synthesis. By Percival Richard Cole. Teachers' College, Columbia University.
- Heritage of Life, The. By James Buckham. Jennings & Graham.
- History of Ancient Civilization. By Charles Seignobos. Scribner.
- History of Modern England. (Vol. V.) By Herbert Paul. Macmillan.
- Houses for Town or Country. By William Herbert. Duffield.
- Industrial Conflict, The. By Samuel G. Smith. Revell.
- Industrial Education. By Harlow S. Person. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Introduction to the English Historians. By Charles A. Beard. Macmillan.
- Labor and Capital. By Goldwin Smith. Macmillan.
- Law: Its Origin, Growth and Function. By J. C. Carter. Putnam.
- Life of Chief Justice Ellis Lewis. By Burton A. Konkle. Campion & Co., Philadelphia.
- Limit of Wealth. By Alfred L. Hutchinson. Macmillan.
- Lord Randolph Churchill. By Lord Rosebery. Harpers.
- Maine's Ancient Law. (Fourth edition.) Holt.
- Many-Sided Roosevelt, The. By George W. Douglas. Dodd, Mead & Co.
- Nature's Own Gardens. By Maud U. Clarke. Dutton.
- New Creations in Plant Life. By W. S. Harwood. Macmillan.
- New Method for Cæsar, A. By Franklin H. Potter. B. H. Sanborn, Boston.
- One Hundred and One Desserts. By May E. Southworth. Paul Elder & Co.
- One Hundred and One Oyster Recipes. By May E. Southworth. Paul Elder & Co.
- Oxford and the Rhodes Scholarships. By R. F. Scholz and S. K. Hornbeck. Henry Frowde, New York.
- Paradoxes of Nature and Science. By W. Hampson. Dutton.
- Pathways to the Best. By Charles L. Goodell, D.D. Funk & Wagnalls.
- Peace Given as the World Giveth. By John Bigelow. Baker & Taylor Co.
- Personal Forces in Modern Literature. By Arthur Rickett. Dutton.
- Personal Hygiene. By Walter L. Pyle. W. B. Saunders Company, Philadelphia.
- Pestalozzian Movement in the United States. By Will S. Monroe. C. W. Bardeen, Syracuse, N. Y.
- Physiology and Hygiene for Children. By Robert Eadie and Andrew Eadie. University Publishing Company, New York.
- Powers of the American People; Congress, President, and Courts. By Masuji Miyakawa. Wilkens-Sheiry Company, Washington.
- Practical Guide for Authors, A. By William S. Booth. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Progress in the Household. By Lucy M. Salmon. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Public Ownership and the Telephone in Great Britain. By Hugo R. Meyer. Macmillan.
- Quest of the Colonial, The. By Robert and Elizabeth Shackleton. Century.
- Racial Integrity. By A. H. Shannon, Nashville, Tenn.
- Railroad Situation. By L. W. Serrell. Moody Corporation, New York.
- Re-birth of Religion. By Algernon S. Crapey. John Lane Company.
- San Francisco and Thereabout. By Charles Keeler. A. M. Robertson, San Francisco.
- Sixty Years with Plymouth Church. By Stephen M. Griswold. Revell.
- Spring Fortnight in France, A. By Josephine Tozler. Dodd, Mead & Co.
- Stars and Stripes and Other American Flags. By Peleg D. Harrison. Little, Brown & Co.
- Training of the Human Plant, The. By Luther Burbank. Century.
- Wage-Earners' Budgets. By Louise B. More. Holt.
- White Hyacinths. By Elbert Hubbard, East Aurora, N. Y.
- Wireless Telegraphy. By Thomas M. St. John, New York.
- Women of the Confederacy, The. By J. L. Underwood. Neale Publishing Company, Washington.
- Worth of a Man, The. By John P. D. John. Jennings & Graham.
- You and Some Others. By Agnes G. Foster. Paul Elder & Co.
- Young in Heart, The. By Arthur Stanwood Pier. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.